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FOURTH ANNUAL CONVENTION

OF THE

ASSOCIATION OF
HISTORY TEACHERS

OF THE

Middle States and Maryland



Held at

THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
TRENTON, NEW JERSEY

March 9 and 10, 1906

PRICE 25 CENTS

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MINUTES

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ANNOUNCEMENTS

THE NEXT CONVENTION

The next annual convention will be held at Columbia University, New York City, on March 8th and 9th, 1907. The program of the various sessions will be announced later in the year.

ANNUAL DUES

The annual fee of one dollar becomes due at the beginning of the fiscal year, which is the second Friday in March. Those who join the Association before January 1, 1907, will receive the reports of our own association, and also the reports of the New England Association and the North Central Association. The report of the New England Association will contain an address by Professor Robinson of the Columbia University on the "Fall of Rome," and the report of the North Central Association will contain a list of aids for teachers which the committees of that association have been preparing during the past year.

LOCAL CONFERENCES

At the convention of 1905, the Association voted unanimously to authorize the formation of local conferences of history teachers. From the minutes of 1905, the following explanation of these conferences is reprinted.

The primary purposes of such conferences is the same as that of the association—"to advance the study and teaching of history and government through discussion" and "to promote personal acquaintance among teachers and students of history." It is expected in this way to reach a large number of teachers whose work and location prevent them from attending conventions frequently and to enlist their active interest and support. The stimulus of the convention may thus in a measure be brought to members at a distance from the center of the association.

Such local conferences will also afford opportunities for wider

discussion than is possible at the convention. Free discussion of opinion will indicate the lines of work of greatest interest and worth. In this way the local conference will materially supplement the work of the association and the two will be mutually helpful.

The local conference is to be controlled and directed entirely by the members of the conference. To get the conference started a chairman is appointed for each local center. He will associate with himself other members and will secure the widest and most hearty coöperation of all persons interested in history in the locality. The secretary will forward to each chairman a list of all members of the association in his vicinity.

The members of the conference should become members of the association. Those who join before January 1, 1907, will receive the minutes of the March meeting and also whatever exchanges we are able to make with other associations.

The following suggestions are offered as a result of past experience in the formation of local conferences. The expenses should be confined to postage and printing, and the machinery of organization be as little as possible. If five or more members will guarantee two or three dollars apiece toward these expenses (to be repaid out of the local dues established at the conference), the membership may be made large at the start. If the total membership of the association can be raised to five hundred through the local conferences (a thing which seems easily possible, judging from the estimates of those who have asked for such conferences and from the experience of other associations), the association will authorize the payment of postage and printing for the local centers in the future.

If the chairmen of adjacent centers will confer with one another before arranging a time for the conference, it may be possible to secure a speaker from a distance by holding conferences on successive days. The secretary is directed to give what aid he can toward securing such speakers.

The program for the conference will be made out entirely by the committee in charge. One center will probably take up a study of the history material in its vicinity; another will give a greater portion of its time to discussion of the papers presented at the con-

vention ; a third will take up some work calculated to arouse the community to an appreciation of the part that history should play in the educational system, etc. A speaker from outside the vicinity will doubtless be an attraction. Brief reports of the conference should be sent to the secretary soon after the conference, to be printed in the minutes, if possible, and to guide the council in planning a program for the following year. A portion of the program of next year will be devoted to reports from the conferences, if the plan works out well.

Last year, such conferences were established at New York, Philadelphia and Trenton. The Trenton conference was the largest, and resulted in increasing the membership of the Central Association by an enrollment of forty names. Inspiring addresses were delivered. Other conferences will be established as demand arises for them.

New York and Vicinity—Doctor William Fairley, Commercial High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Philadelphia—Professor C. A. Herrick, Central High School.

Trenton—Superintendent Ebenezer Mackey, Department of Education.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

J. M. GREEN.

PRINCIPAL STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TRENTON.

Principal Green, in welcoming the members of the Association to Trenton, spoke in part as follows :

It is my pleasure, on behalf of the State Board of Education of New Jersey, of our Faculty, and of the citizens of Trenton, to welcome you here, and on this occasion.

Trenton, from the military point of view, has not had many events in its history, but it has learned to make the most of what it has had. We like to think of our one battle as among the greatest in its consequences, and we are accustomed to say of it that it turned the tide of the Revolutionary War, and gave the first real hope of our independence. You can readily see how this disposition on our part to tell our record in the largest phrases prepares us to appreciate your work.

I fear it would not be safe for me to enter too much into the technicalities of your special branch. It was once my lot to address the Indian Department of the National Educational Association at Charleston. In beginning my address, I stated to my hearers that I had accepted the invitation to come to them with alacrity, as I had always found I could talk most fluently on the subjects I knew least about. Upon leaving the hall later with a friend, he said to me, "That was the best speech I ever heard you make. You began by stating that you knew nothing of the subject, and you proceeded to demonstrate the fact."

I fear if I should speak much on the technical phases of history, I should win a like comment. I should like, however, to say that I am among the number who warmly appreciate the work the history teachers of our country are doing at the present time. It is not very long since it seemed mostly the fashion of history to recall little more than the deeds of men under heroic stress or in official relation, with little regard to the practical bearing of these deeds; but the

teacher of to-day seems to concern himself with turning the light of past events on present-day problems.

How can I bring the experience of society to bear upon its present acts? What are the primary principles of municipal formation and development? How do States relate themselves to each other through transportation, mediums of exchange, etc? These are the questions he is continually attempting to solve. The light that a number of our present teachers of history are throwing upon such questions as these is such a tribute to society that it places them in our highest estimation. The teacher of to-day is the genuine pilot of our state.

Again, we most cordially welcome you here. We want you to feel at home in our institutions, in our places of business and of pleasure, and by our firesides.

PRESIDENT'S RESPONSE.

CHARLES M. ANDREWS,

PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, BRYN MAWR COLLEGE.

In behalf of the members of the Association, I thank Principal Green for his cordial words of welcome to the city of Trenton and to the State Normal School in which we now are. Our gathering here to-day is more than a meeting of the history teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, for the consideration of problems connected with our chosen subject. It is part of a great and widespread educational movement, which is taking place throughout the United States at the present time, looking to the systematizing of our educational methods and to the closer union of those who are the teachers in our primary and secondary schools and in our colleges. Through a better understanding of the needs and requirements of history teachers and teaching, and through the increase of interest in each other's difficulties and limitations, all of us hope to find satisfaction and encouragement in our work. We seek agreement and a common standing ground that those who set examination papers in history and those who prepare the pupils for college examinations may work heartily and intelligently for the attainment of a common end. In this desire for co-operation between the preparatory school and the college, and in these meetings which are designed to further that desire, America stands almost alone. The English educational system knows no gathering of this kind in the field of history, with the single exception of an association recently formed in Liverpool, under the direction of Professor Ramsay Muir. The American college has no desire to stand aloof from the preparatory school, setting an absolute requirement and standard to which the preparatory school is called upon to attain. Unlike the English university, it willingly heeds the advice of the preparatory school-teacher, and listens to his suggestions and comments, drawn, as they are, from a wide experience. At the same time it has a right to demand that preparatory school teaching be careful

and intelligent, not slipshod and superficial, and to show by textbooks and examination papers the kind of work that it thinks ought to be done. Just as by improved methods, and without extra time or labor, the fruitfulness of the soil can be increased, so, the college believes that, by the employment of better trained teachers and more systematic methods of teaching, the fruitfulness of the preparatory schools can be enhanced without increase of hours or courses, and the pupils brought to a more intelligent appreciation of their subject without undue exertion on their part.

This Association has been formed for the increase of our knowledge of each other and of what we are doing; and we can but hope that in the papers to be read and the discussion that these papers will provoke, we shall all find stimulus and courage for the important task to which we have set our hands.

THE PROBLEM OF CORRELATING THE WORK IN HISTORY IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, HIGH SCHOOL, AND COLLEGE.

DAVID SAVILLE MUZZEY,

ETHICAL CULTURE SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY.

I judge, from the topic assigned me for this afternoon—the problem of correlating the work in history in the elementary school, the high school, and the college—that I am expected to confine myself rather closely to the vexed and vexatious questions of pedagogic theory, leaving to Mr. Smith, who follows me, the concrete application of the theory to a given field of historical study—the American Revolution.

The problem of correlating the work in history in the various grades of the elementary school, the high school, and the college (especially in the first two, I may say, as I shall touch on the college only incidentally) presents itself to me under three aspects. First, the problem arising from the nature of the subject itself; second, the problem arising from the mental development of the pupil; and, third, the special problem in the high school, where, to my mind, the crux of the situation lies.

To dwell for a few minutes on the problem presented by the nature of the subject itself, history is a subject in which we have to give the student a maximum of facts and a minimum of laws. While the sciences, mathematics, the languages seem to have an objective value, independent of the vicissitudes of human fortune, history seems to be but the record itself of these vicissitudes. There seems to be hardly a fact of history that might not, by a slight change of fortune, have been other than it was and the father of a line of facts utterly revolutionizing the course of civilization. If Columbus' ship had sunk like Gilbert's, if Charlemagne had been stricken down on a Saxon battlefield like Gustavus, if the Mohammedans had been successful in their progress from the west toward Paris as they were in their progress from the east to-

ward Constantinople, who can tell what America and Europe would be to-day? History is a series of crises, despite the truth of the continuity of history. One might even say that history is a continuity of crises—and the significance of history can be even feebly and remotely grasped only by those in whom an accumulation of the facts of history and maturity of judgment have combined to make a mental historic background. The philosophy of history, which is the final justification for the study of history at all, is beyond the grasp of our students. They are accumulating facts for they know not what. Imagine the truths of terrestrial mechanics bound up in the fate of Archimedes as he sits tracing his figures on the sand of Syracuse, when the brutal soldiery of Marcellus strike him down; or the truths of celestial mechanics conditioned on Newton's day dreaming under the apple tree! The laws of line, force and motion were bound to be progressively discovered, but we can hardly see why of necessity two peoples separated by thousands of miles should be bound in closest ties of union by commercial interests, while "neighbors on opposite banks of a stream were completely sundered by variations in a liturgy."

Again, we are embarrassed by the mere multitude of historic facts. Memory sags under the long accumulations of the centuries, and the student struggles, like Enceladus, under the *Ætna* of historic monuments. Sometimes we envy "the Hottentot on Africa's burning sands," or the cave-man who had no records to explore. How shall the teacher of history choose from these long annals the material fit for his pupil's interest and understanding? How simple seems the task of presenting the theorems of geometry or the rules of German grammar, which have been distilled from the centuries of mathematical reflection and literary activity, as compared with the selection of facts from an unlimited mass from which no laws comparable in constancy to the law of the three angles of a triangle or the law of the agreement of the adjective have yet been deduced, even by the giant intellect of a Hegel! If one points to literature as furnishing a like problem of unlimited material from which to choose, the reply is that from the point of view of the embarrassment of riches the difficulty of teaching the history is as much greater than that of teaching the

literature, as the material of history is bound into a closer web of interrelationship than the material of literature. One can study Thackeray profitably with only incidental reference to contemporaries and with the historic consciousness confined to the space of a few decades. But one cannot study Gladstone profitably without acquaintance with the movements in courts and camps of Europe and Asia, or without an historic background reaching to the days when Richard Strongbow reduced the region around Dublin to the dominion of the Angevins.

A third problem inherent in the nature of the subject is the modern tendency toward comprehensiveness of interests in historical instruction. If we call the accumulation of facts of the centuries of recorded human life the longitudinal problem of history, we might call this multiplication of interest in the succeeding ages the latitudinal problem. Our grandfathers can remember when the study of history served simply as the illustration of theories. History was theology and philosophy teaching by example. A principle of selection from such modest accumulations of material as they had was furnished our forefathers by the absolute guiding truth of their metaphysics and theology. Their historical works are of little value to-day. Not that our Greens and Lavisses and Lamprechts are more learned than Leibnitz, or more diligent than Tillemont, or more cultured than Milman, or more veracious than Muraton. They simply have a different conception of history, a wider view, a more comprehensive grasp. We have far outgrown in this respect even the distinctly political school of Ranke and Stubbs, which succeeded the theologico-philosophical school of Tillemont and Gibbon. Our histories now must be histories of the peoples, not alone of the courts of Europe; histories of the industries as well as the wars; of the effects of steam as well as the effects of edicts. The river of historic narrative is flowing on as fast as ever, but in our day it is widening, too, at a tremendous rate, breaking down the artificial embankments of creed and system between which its course had been kept for so many centuries and spreading into the broad sea of human will-relations which it really is.

One more problem inherent in the nature of the subject itself I should like to mention before leaving this first topic; that is, the

peculiar susceptibility of historic methods to revolution. This is amply explained if we bear in mind the point emphasized in a former paragraph of the complete dependence of the facts of history on human vicissitudes. Certain epochs of time are dominated by certain large social influences. "In history," as Emerson puts it, "an idea always overhangs like the moon," controlling the tides of human thought. Who can fail to recognize, for example, in American history the complete swing of the pendulum of interest, at the close of the period of reconstruction, from constitutional and purely political subjects to the great economic interests of tariff, currency, labor and capital, government regulation of industries, and the like? It would be impossible for the historian of America to-day, even with the same materials before him as his predecessor in the fifties, to distribute the interest of his narrative in the same way. A most interesting proof of this is to be found in the work of a man who came suddenly into our new economic-ridden life bringing the older political tradition of Von Ranke. Von Holst's history of middle decades of our Union reads like a work that must have been written by a contemporary of Daniel Webster, not of Grover Cleveland. There are fashions in historiography as well as in millinery. The universal history of Orosius and Schlosser, the romantic history of Michelet and Schiller, the Hegelian history of Baur, and the sphragistic history of Von Ranke have all had their day. Now we are living in an era of collaboration. Writers are working for the great historiographic corporations managed by Oncken, Lavissee and Rambaud, Albert Bushnell Hart and the editors of the *Cambridge Modern History*. The first thing to ask of a new book is, What series is it in?

I fear the objection will have been raised ere this in the minds of many of you that my paper has little to do with the subject of the correlation of the work in history in the elementary school, high school, and college. Yet, a full realization of the nature of the subject whose material we have to correlate is, after all, germane to the topic. We must approach our subject as well as our students. We must bear in mind that what we have to mediate to our students is a body of facts which are entirely dependent for their significance on human vicissitudes and human will-relations, a very large body of facts reaching back over hundreds of cen-

turies and ramifying out every generation into wider circles of influence, and finally a body of facts approached by the historian at various times from various points of view and subject in different epochs to widely different methods of treatment.

To turn now to the second aspect of the subject before us, the problem arising from the mental development of the pupil. The truth that our teaching must be adapted to the developing maturity of the student is the basic axiom of pedagogy. How are we going to get such adaptation in history? There are no easy and natural gradations in our subject. Every epoch is about equally complex with the ones that precede and follow, and it is only by arbitrary selection—a process which few of the text-book makers seem to have mastered—that we can adopt any epoch to the comprehension of the student. To be sure, the farther back we go in time the less complex is the recorded life of a people. But the chronological principle will by no means serve us as a norm of progression in our teaching. Our gain in simplicity of elements is more than counterbalanced by the unfamiliarity caused by remoteness of time, of place, of terms, of standards.

We shall realize the tremendous problem for us teachers involved in the fact that there is no natural and easy progression discoverable in history, if we compare the subject with other subjects in which such progression or gradation does inhere. In mathematics, for example, what a splendid orderly progression from the simpler operations with numbers to the more complex, from arithmetic to algebra (involving the principles of arithmetic), from algebra to geometry (involving the principles of arithmetic and algebra), and from geometry out into the different subjects of higher mathematics, mechanics and physics, involving all these basic principles of pure and descriptive algebra. In the languages again the principle of the blade, the ear, and the full corn in the ear is clearly marked out. From the elements of the grammar the student passes on to the simpler texts of the language, then to the standard works of literature. But where and what is the grammar of history? What are the digits of politics or the A B C's of foreign relations? The examiners of the Board of the Middle States and Maryland find no difficulty in making out elementary, intermediate and advanced examination papers in French or Latin: it

is a question of range of vocabulary and difficulty of construction fairly simple to determine. But the composition of elementary, intermediate and advanced papers in history would be a very difficult matter. Every fact of history is elementary, intermediate, or advanced, according to the depth to which it is probed, the extent to which the passions and arguments of men have entered into it, the sufficiency with which its antecedents and consequences have been traced, the wealth of comparison with analogous or antithetical facts in history, and many other considerations. The Norman Conquest is completely told to persons of one grade of intellectual development by the Bayeux tapestry, to another by this plus the overwhelming personality of William the Conqueror, to another by this plus the modification of Saxon feudalism through the Norman, to another by this plus the social, religious, legal, linguistic influences of the Conquest. Every faculty that opens in the student as he matures finds a stimulating response in every fact of history. So that the wisely progressive teaching of history is a tremendous exercise in applied psychology. In history we have, as it were, two variables to deal with, the subject and the student. We can say in mathematics, this problem is beyond the student; we can say in the language work, this passage is too difficult for the student—but in history we cannot say, this fact is too hard for the student, but only this treatment of the fact is not suited to the intellectual development of the student.

To touch for a moment directly on the subject assigned me, I should say that the effective correlation of the work in history in elementary school, high school, and college depends not so much on the facts presented to the students in the various grades as on the proper method of presentation to meet the receptive powers of the pupil. It is, of course, with due allowance for exceptional cases that I would venture the following classification. The appeal to the child of the elementary school must be made through the picture, the appeal to the high school student through the picture and the emotions, the appeal to the college student through picture, emotions and judgment. The process, like the material of history itself, is cumulative.

There would probably be little objection to the statement that the appeal to the child in the elementary school is through the

picture. The child up into the earliest 'teens is passionately devoted to the objective heroic. The time of deep affections and sentimentalities so characteristic of the later 'teens has not yet come. The fairy tale of speaking beast and enchanting prince is scarcely outgrown. There is a great fund of dramatic capital ready to be withdrawn from elves and fairy princes and invested in King Philip's real Indians and Samuel Adams' mock Indians. A few weeks ago I had an interesting proof of the response of the children of the elementary school to the picture stimulus. The class, the VIII. grade, is studying English history. In the midst of the rather dreary period which set in when Marlborough left the stage and the gouty Hanoverians came on, the children all of a sudden found an inspiration in a subject which would probably be guessed last by most of my audience—the adoption of the reformed calendar by England in 1752. Not in the astronomical data for the reform introduced by Pope Gregory XIII., nor the religious objections which England had to following the recommendations of Gregory, a scanty generation after the death of Henry VIII.; but only in that dramatic incident connected with the change from old style to new, of the laborers marching through the streets shouting, "Give us back our eleven days." The clamor for the lost eleven days echoed through the class room for several recitations, and every most desperate chance to bring them into the lesson was seized upon. I asked the class in a little written test quite a few days later what the Septennial Act was, and learned from one paper that "the Septennial Act was an Act compelling people to call Sept. 1 Sept. 11, by which they lost eleven days." The verse of the Gospels comes to my mind when I think of teaching history to the children of the elementary school: "Without a parable spoke he not unto them."

I think there would be equally slight objection to the statement that in college students the instructor or professor in history has a right to expect to deal with young men and women who, to the picture cravings of childhood and the emotions of later boyhood and girlhood, have added some power and scope of judgment; who have in other words so begun to get an independent mental footing that they can consciously and objectively view conflicting judgments and complex motives. It was a famous word of one of

the most stimulating teachers of history in the past century, Karl Hase, that "History is a glass in which the human spirit views itself and learns to know itself as the creative power in the world's development." The psychological moment of reflection, as contrasted with or rather as added to the experiences of mental excitement and sympathy in the study of history—in other words, the element which first makes an approximately exhaustive understanding of any era of history possible—seems to me distinctly an experience to be looked for only in the pupil of the age for college or even university. To comprehend history as a series or a network of will-relations necessitates that mental predisposition in the student which comes only of the realization in his own dawning manhood of the supreme and delicate significance of will-relations in human intercourse in all ages from Hammurabi to Von Buelow.

I will leave concrete illustrations of the adaptation of the material of history to the college student to my successor, merely venturing this psychological consideration of the maturing of the student's will through judgment to meet historical data as problems of will-relations. Even if the time for my paper were unlimited, modesty ought to compel one who has never taught history in a college to refrain from anything like dogmatizing on the method. And so I turn to the third division of my subject, namely, the special problem of the correlation of the history work in the high school.

If there were any doubt in the minds of us high school teachers that the crux of the problem of historical teaching is in the high school it would be dispelled by the appeals, the protests, the injunctions, the beseechings which come down to us from the college instructors and professors. The latter realize that they are receiving from our hands pupils already furnished with a mental and moral disposition which it is hard to alter—and perhaps are inclined to blame us for not having induced maturity of judgment before finality of conviction.

But this is to fail to recognize the inevitable psychological truth that the high school years are the years of emotional development *par excellence*, and that the high school teacher cannot fly in the face of nature. These years are the time of deep and generous feeling,

of sentimental friendships, of transcendent ideals, and world-rocking futures. History is the field of heroic action. Not the splendor of Alexander's feast "for Persia won," but the thought of the world at the feet of a young man just turned thirty—not the policy of William Pitt, but the thought of the destinies of the British Empire in the hands of a youth of twenty-four, inspire these ardent young souls. They, after all, have ten years in which to grow to that, or something like it—and ten years is a long, long while. The momentous day of our own disenchantment is so obscured by our steady prosaic effort to earn our living, since it dawned that we hardly are fair to our young pupils.

But this is not to be a disquisition on the inner consciousness of the high school boy and girl. It is rather some very practical aspects of the problem of the adaptation of the history material to their needs that I wish to call your attention to in what remains of this paper.

First, in the matter of time. In the discussion last April in Chicago by the North Central Teachers' Association on the subject "What Can the College Expect from the High School Course in History?" Mr. Marcus W. Jernegan, of the School of Education in Chicago, said: "The college has a right to expect that every student be given the opportunity to study each of the four periods of history as outlined in the report of the Committee of Seven. * * * The college has a right to expect that history will be taught in a manner to develop power. * * * The pupil should be taught to use the principal reference books, cyclopædias, guides, atlases, that bear on the field of history which he is studying. * * * He should become familiar with the standard secondary works covering the field of history which he is studying. * * * He should be shown the difference between sources and secondary accounts. * * * He should receive training in writing papers and reports which will necessitate the use of several books containing first and second-hand accounts, and be taught to give exact references. Practice in note-taking should be given. The teacher should insist on weekly readings in standard secondary work. * * * The pupils should be encouraged to read biographies of the great historical characters. * * * The college has a right to expect that pupils—[always high school pupils, this]—shall meet the problems of history with the

right attitude of mind ; that they will have an open mind for the reception of new truths ; that they will be tolerant to those having unusual ideas ; that they will have a desire to search for the two sides which are present in many historical questions ; and finally, that they will have an earnest desire to know the truth." One clause alone is lacking in Mr. Jernegan's summary of the requirements. It would read: "The college has a right to expect that the high school student will devote himself exclusively to history during every day of four years of his course." It is the only condition under which the above requirements could be fulfilled. In a word, Mr. Jernegan's demands on the high school student seem to me simply preposterous. They would better fit the graduate student in the historical seminar. Imagine these healthy boys and girls, with a lively interest in basket-ball, automobile models, music and matinees ; with a half a dozen teachers, each enriching his or her subject by the introduction of original tasks and problems, clamoring for the widening of the sphere of study ; with an armful of well-worn books to carry home to occupy the hours of five evenings a week ; imagine these children, who are hunted through their days, as it is, by their eager teachers, embracing in one of their subjects alone a programme like that outlined by Mr. Jernegan !

I am anxious, above all else, to-day, to speak a word of sympathy for the over-worked high school student. For, I firmly believe, that the admirable movement of reform, by which the old, dull, memoriter method of teaching history has been banished, is over-leaping itself to "land on the other." For all our boasted progress in pedagogy, in the psychological appreciation of our pupils, there is the gravest danger that we forget our pupils' powers in our own desire to see a subject in history treated exhaustively and maturely. I say, advisedly, forget our pupils' powers. For in the report just referred to, I find that in the justification for this mode of historical teaching which posts long lists of required reading, containing Freeman, Stubbs and Ranke, on high school bulletins, hardly a thought is given to the time or the ability of the pupil for handling the subject thus. Professor Whitcomb, for example, says: "There are at least two reasons why this technical equipment should be supplied in the pre-collegiate historical instruction. In the first place, it enriches the high school course in history ; in the second place, it

relieves the congestion of college work. Professor H. E. Bourne (whose programme is far more possible than Mr. Jernegan's) concludes his remarks with the words: "To ask this is not unreasonable, for it is what every ambitious teacher is eager to give the pupils during their high school experience." Professor Wilde says, "It is possible for the skillful teacher to use the elements of historical criticism so that it shall not be entirely new ground when the student comes to college." All from the point of view, you see, of the ambition of the teacher, or the enrichment of the course, or the congestion in the college courses in history—and nothing about the student's time or capacity to profit by the technical method. It takes but a moment's thought to realize that congestion in the college course in history (even granted that it is in the college, not in the high school, that the congestion really exists) is absolutely no argument for extending methods suitable to the college student into the high schools. It is as if an overworked man should think to relieve the pressure by delegating some of his work to his immature son. And as for the teacher's ambition, that might reach even to the desire to discuss from original sources the origins of papal absolutism, were it not checked by the careful estimate of the powers and hours of his pupils of sixteen. Are we not hurrying our demands on the high school student more rapidly than he is growing, under our deservedly prized modern education to meet them? Our business is to lead the pupil through the rich fields of human knowledge. Are we not rather grasping him firmly by the hand and adjusting our own seven-league boots of historical prescience, and fixing our own eyes on the receding goal of historical omniscience, dragging him faster and faster until his feet scarcely touch the ground for a moment here and there?

I am not pleading for a return to the catechetical method of history-teaching in the high school, where the teacher shall ask, "And what did the astute Mr. Fox reply?" and the student shall answer, "The astute Mr. Fox, sir, replied, et cetera." I would only sound a note of caution against going to the other extreme and confusing the mind of the student by adding to the variety of facts inevitably to be encountered a further variety of interpretations in secondary works, written in a language and with an assumption of historical background usually far beyond the grasp of the student. Because

we teachers find Stubbs and Seignobos, Ranke and Rhodes indispensable to us in our historical construction, we are tempted to think they would be good for our high school pupils. But we are deceived, if we yield to that temptation. The high school pupil's construction of history is very different from ours. He is laboriously laying the foundations in emotional sympathies for reasoned reflection on the facts in future years. His dominant psychical activity is not yet logic—except in the rare instance of the uninteresting mannikins of the class. He warms quickly to a subject, and cools again with still more remarkable coolness. Witness his recitation, which starts off with a confident rush, and ends in forty-five seconds with a feeble stammering repetition of the last phrase; like those wild bustards which the army of Cyrus met on the edge of the desert, "they rise up quickly," says Xenophon, "but after flying a short distance, they collapse." Or, like the seed in the Gospel parable, straightway their idea springeth up, but, because it has no depth of soil, when the sun is risen (when the ray of the teacher's criticism touches it), it is scorched and withereth away. "No depth of soil" means here no historical background, no historical residuum from a wealth of facts reflected upon for a number of years. Of what use to read Gibbon's generalizations, or to wander among Prescott's allusions, when only a body of historical facts ludicrously insufficient for generalization and unenlightening for allusions is at the student's command? In no other branch of high school work, so far as I know, is there this mad desire to acquaint the immature student with the foremost authorities or the masters of art and science. The German teachers do not expect the pupils to study *Immensee* as their class text, and at the same time to read Göthe's *Wilhelm Meister* and Lessing's *Laocoön* on the side, in their spare moments. Yet the high school student in Roman History is expected to pass from Wolfson to Mommsen—surely as wide a step as from *Immensee* to *Wilhelm Meister*—with the greatest natural ease.

And how, pray, can a boy or girl of sixteen be expected to be capable of applying tests to the evidence they accumulate, or of distinguishing authorities? Whence has come so early the power to analyze motive, to weigh political, social, religious impulses, to compare analogous cases, to reckon antecedent probabilities, to make allowance for a hundred prepossessions and prejudices; in short, to

summon to his aid any fraction of the immense number of considerations which alone make any historic judgment of value. Such simple tests even as the testimony of eye-witnesses are not always to be relied upon for establishing truths. As Langlois humorously points out, the devil is far more solidly established as a historic personage than Peisistratus, for we have the testimony of thousands of eye-witnesses to the former's existence, but not any to the latter's. For all that, we are all probably a little surer of Peisistratus' existence as an historic person than the devil's.

Lord Acton, in his counsels to students in the study of history, lays down these rules: "Have no favorites. Hold men and things apart. Be on your guard against the magic of great names. Let your judgments be your own. Have no fear of differences of opinion. Be severer in the judgment of principles than of acts. Do not neglect the strong element in the weaker argument, nor the weak in the stronger. Marvel not when an idol falls or a skeleton is unearthed. Judge talents after their best accomplishment; character after its worst deeds. Study problems rather than periods." These are counsels for the students who have reached the age of historical discretion. Could any list of injunctions show better by their fitness for the situation than these do by their unfitness what our problem is in handling history with the high school children? They have their favorites; theirs is the age for absorbing favorites; they are captivated by the great names. Their judgments are not and cannot be their own. They fear nothing so much as differences of opinion—and will change their answers in the direction they think the teacher wishes them changed under the slightest pressure. They marvel greatly when an idol falls. They are final in their judgment of the act because they cannot penetrate to the principle. They see an argument as a single *pro* or *contra*. They do not suspend decision. And finally they cannot study problems, simply because the problems do not exist for them.

A final danger of the over-emphasis of the so-called laboratory or research method in the high school history, I wish to mention. That is its invitation to confusion of the student's mind. History is, with the exception of English literature, the only subject studied in the high school that is not amenable to constant control and check. Mistakes in multiplication, in inflection, in translation, even in color

and line, can be exactly pointed out to the immediate satisfaction of every sane student—but the answers to questions of history which can be rated absolutely as right or wrong diminish rapidly as the student advances from the elementary grades. I have had many a student want to know why he got 50 per cent. in a paper in which perhaps not a single error appeared that could be scored. "What is *wrong* with this paper?" is the natural inquiry, and it takes perhaps a private lesson to show why the paper, without a mistake in facts, is trivial and worthless, whereas another paper with three dates wrong, might be worth 95 per cent. for its fine grasp of the essential points of the lesson. Can we afford to increase this danger of confusion by introducing the student to a half a dozen interpretations of the facts, varying widely in their claim upon maturity of judgment? Are we not in imminent danger of setting the student to wrestling with interpretations of facts which he has not yet got fairly lodged in his head? He performs his exercise in geometry with the figure securely outlined and lettered at the top of his paper; his progress in mathematics is continuously and consistently constructive. In his language work, too, the process is almost purely cumulative; the building of word upon word, construction upon construction, line upon line. Digressions from the *Cæsar* into *Tacitus*, flights from plane geometry into quaternions, would be severely frowned upon by the heads of the departments of the classics and mathematics. Surely the student's need for orderly development in history is not less than that in Latin and Geometry, because the number of facts he has to deal with is inevitably greater, and the field of interests he has to cover is immensely wider. Rather is that a reason why the method should be more carefully chosen according to the student's mental capacity and psychic proclivities. We do not even have to help us in history the attraction of the puzzle element, which figures so largely in mathematics, or the reinforcement of the sense of triumph over an equation solved, or a difficult translation mastered. We have both to create and to satisfy the enthusiasms of the young student of history. And this, it seems to me, we must always do by making the subject more concrete, more personal, more intimate, less formal than it is in the text-book, and not vaguer, more impersonal, more formal as it is made by the multiplication of printed authorities. There is in the Angevin document called "The Little

Black Book of the Exchequer" a table of the perquisites due each of the officers of the King's House. There we read that the Chancellor is to have "one wax candle and forty candle ends." I'm not so sure about the one whole wax candle, but I am sure that most of our high school students get the forty candle ends of history.

In concluding, let me briefly summarize the points of my paper. The problem of correlating the work in history in the elementary school, the high school and the college derives its difficulty both from the nature of the subject itself and from the immense width of choice in the method of adaptation of the material to the mind of the student. The first difficulty arises from the facts that history is the record not so much of the working of obvious or demonstrable laws, as of apparently capricious fortunes in human affairs; that the annals of history are distressingly long and perplexingly varied; that a wide field of human interests is being constantly brought into the purview of history; and that historical methods are peculiarly subject to modification and revolution. The second difficulty (that of the adaptation of the material) arises from the fact that there is no natural pedagogical progression discoverable in the course of history, but it must be supplied wholly through the teacher's interpretation. The interpretation of the facts of history should appeal primarily to the picture-sense in the elementary grades, to the emotions in the high school classes, and to the judgment in the college courses. The high school, as the place where habits of serious attention to mental work and ready receptivity of ethical appeals are formed, where the boy and girl in the vast majority of cases either becomes a student for life or renounces for life the student's temper of mind, is where the chief problems of historical instruction lies. The most serious danger in the present trend of our instruction in history in the high school is a failure to consider the limitations in time, in equipment, and in mental and moral development to which our boys and girls are subject, and by forcing methods suitable to a higher development, to confuse rather than to clarify, their ideas on this most elusive subject of the curriculum. Substituting for the frequently asked question of secondary importance, "What have we a right to expect of the high school student in history?" the seldom asked, but really primary question, "What has the high school student in history a right to expect of us?" I think his fair demand

might be phrased in the words of the Hebrew psalmist, "Remove far from me all vanity and lies; give me neither poverty nor riches, and feed me with food convenient for me."

DIFFERENTIATION IN TREATMENT OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE.

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I shall consider primarily in this paper the principles that should govern the proper selection of historic material in a progressive course from elementary school to college, and secondarily the application of these principles to a specific case.

The formal periods expressed by the terms elementary school, high school and college or university only indicate stages of progress in the pupil's ability and in the teacher's methods. One may not postulate a set of facts as being proper for any one of these stages, and for it alone. Knowledge of any particular historical fact is very largely a relative term—it is a matter of degree. The elementary school pupil knows that slavery was the cause of the Civil War in American history, but the graduate student, seeing the subject in its bearings, knows more completely that slavery was the cause of the Civil War, yet this subject is a proper one for study in both cases. All I may hope to do is to set forth some general principles of selection of facts for any particular period of formal instruction. No two good teachers would teach the same number of facts, nor the same facts in all cases. One may not dogmatize in a subject so broad and so human as history.

BASIS OF SELECTION.

By what criteria shall the teacher of history be guided in his choice of material? One necessary consideration is to be found in the character of the proposed subject matter. The facts selected must be significant or characteristic, those that help to explain society about us, those that distinguish the man, country or age from all others. These are characteristic and significant.

But even these must be put in their proper setting and emphasized with proper perspective if they are not to give distorted and wrong impressions. Just views and sound judgment on the part of the teacher are here essential. Poetry, story and anecdote are frequently truer than the grave facts of history, especially when appealing to the understanding of the child.

Analytically, what are the canons that test the educational value of any particular historic fact? To me the following seem important:

1. Has any proposed historic content value for culture? Will it so react upon the pupil as to produce a refinement of mind and manner? If so, it is a proper subject for selection.

2. Has any particular fact or set of facts informational value? Will it add to his knowledge of things worth knowing, in that it will assist in the fuller meaning of future ideas, and enable him to comprehend more fully the social and political world about him? If so, such is a reason for its acceptance by writer or teacher.

3. Has any particular history content value for guidance? Does it set forth some act of heroism or patriotism, some duty performed, or some inevitable result of human action whereby the heart and the imagination may be stirred and the will directed? If so, it is a proper subject for selection.

4. Has any proposed content value for discipline? If it strengthens the memory, stirs the imagination, arouses the proper emotions, or exercises the reasoning power by illustrating the relation of cause and effect in human action it is a proper subject for selection.

But more important than this external basis of selection found in the character of the material to be selected are those considerations based upon the characteristic mental life of the learner in any of these formal stages. Any scientific differentiation of material and method must take cognizance of the mental life of any particular educational period, for no system of instruction rests on a sound basis that does not conform to the nature of the being to be taught.

What are the characteristic features of the mental life of the pupil in the latter years of the grammar school, where the first approach is made to a formal study of American history?

This pupil is wide awake to the world about him. The incoming nerves are freighted with the impressions of the outside world. His powers of observation being keen for the world of sights and sounds he sees vividly, therefore his memory is strong and his imagination active. His mental life is one of ceaseless activity. "His subjective and his objective experiences are vivid and manifold. He loves intense states of mind and is fond of excitement." The active, the dramatic, the picturesque and the poetic have a never-ceasing charm for him. His relation in the family and the school has been one of tutelage, of direction and guidance. The personal element has entered deeply into all these relations, and therefore he has a broad fund of experience for the understanding of historical matters into which the purely personal element enters. He understands very well the various passions of hate, filial love, envy, jealousy, duty and emulation as motives to human action.

The prime consideration is his ability to take and assimilate a proposed body of facts. The facts must be simple, particular, and concrete. His familiarity with the facts of home, school, and neighborhood enables him to understand the similar facts of history. Therefore the home life, the manners and customs of the people are always interesting to him.

The picturesque and the dramatic in history having so powerful a charm for him must be thrown forward. The close relation between feeling and intellectual action becomes here very significant. That which excites admiration, sympathy, or patriotism not only becomes a powerful stimulus to intellectual action but also becomes a potent factor in training the moral will. Personality is interesting to everyone, and to a pupil in this stage of development it is especially so, and the individual is more interesting than the group. So important are persons that they should become the centers for the grouping of facts.

It is only as there is this proper adjustment of matter to the mental stage that it has meaning and interest. Without it history, one of the most interesting of subjects, becomes meaningless and distasteful. Herein is to be found a partial explanation of the pupil's frequent dislike of the subject.

The high school period but marks a progression in mental

development, no chasm exists between this and the preceding stage. Previous historical learning is the foundation of future learning. The high school pupil still perceives, remembers and imagines, but these mental activities do not occupy so dominant a position as in the preceding period. He now compares, analyzes and reasons in a finer sense than heretofore. In this there is an advance but not an abrupt advance, and this is significant in selection and organization of material.

A further characteristic of the pupil in this stage of development is that altruism is coming more and more into play, and egoism ceases to be the sole motive force.

Heretofore his attention has very largely been centered in self. He has been an egoist, but now his interest, affection and sympathy begin to go out to others. Here is the basis for an interest in the social organism. He begins to project himself into the larger world of society about him.

If the preceding be his mental and emotional characteristics, we are ready for a decided advance in the selection and organization of material. Facts of more general and abstract nature can now be taught. Personal agents should be less prominent than heretofore. The conceptions of nation and society should be brought forward. Large political transactions—the acts of legislatures, congresses and conventions can be grouped. The significance of facts and the force and direction of historical movements can be pointed out. The dramatic and the picturesque need not be emphasized as heretofore in instruction as a means of adding interest.

Of the college man, what shall we say other than that by a progressive development he has arrived at a position in his mental growth which marks a distinct advance over the preceding or preparatory stage. He has come into his own in this latter period of formal instruction. His faculties are all developed and active. Especially has he developed the power to compare, generalize and reason. He can now deal with the abstract, and has accumulated a large fund of information upon which to base his generalizations.

This transition from the secondary stage demands a readjustment in material and method. Society and not the individual now becomes prominent; broader and deeper views of the State are possible; the study of history will be correlated with economics, con-

stitutional law, and political philosophy; the spirit of investigation will be fostered, and the historical judgment trained in the weighing of evidence from sources.

APPLICATION OF THE PRECEDING PRINCIPLES.

In the preparation of this paper I worked out a complete scheme illustrative of the preceding principles as applied to a definite period of American history; the Revolutionary War. But to present that in this connection at this time would be tedious, and would extend this paper to an unwarranted length. Therefore, I shall present but a single point in that elaboration; the application of these enunciated principles to the teaching of the causes of the American Revolution in the three stages under consideration.

The grammar school pupil can understand the general features of the contention that led to the war. A series of restrictive acts on the part of the mother country on manufactures in the colonies, so that manufacturers in England might have a better market for goods, a series of trade regulations which required the raw material products of the colonies to be sent only to England, the placing of a burden in the form of taxes on the colonies in which they have nothing to say. All of which appeals to the boy's sense of unfairness. He can very readily see that war was inevitable as a result of such conditions imposed on a spirited people. Further than this, I would not go.

For the fourth year in the high school, where American history is usually placed, I suggest the following considerations for this same topic: A correlation with English history will be made through a preliminary review of the personal rise of George III. The student now being able to understand action by groups of individuals, will examine the drift toward a break with the mother country as seen in the acts of the various congresses, the resolutions of state legislatures, and the repressive policy of George's parliaments. He will also study the complementary movement within the colonies, the drift toward union, as seen in the non-importation and non-consumption agreements, and in the local and national committees of correspondence. His interest in political institutions will be appealed to by a study of the irreconcilable difference between the English and the American theories of representation.

Presentation of this subject in higher instruction would seem to necessitate the conception that a scientific differentiation of material of the revolutionary period from the point of view of instruction in the high schools on the one hand, and colleges and university on the other, must be based on a difference in degree in the mental activity of the learner, and not on a difference in kind.

The college student can better grasp the abstract, in that he has a power of generalization in a degree not possessed by the high school pupil. His apperceiving content is more comprehensive in historical matters.

What then should be the content of material on the causes of the Revolution appropriate to him?

His interest in political science will be broadened by an examination of the development of the English parliament from an insular into an imperial character, with powers beyond the four seas, in connection with the opposing theory of the American jurists of that time.

His political, social and economic interests will find worthy material in a study of those forces within the colonies working for internal union and consequent disruption with the mother country. A full understanding of this question necessitates, on the part of the advanced student, an examination of the European colonial systems of the eighteenth century.

His historic sense and judgment will be developed by a study of the debates in parliament and colonial legislatures, the letters of the committees of correspondence, instructions of the home government to royal governors, and the private correspondence of prominent men within the colonies; the foregoing constituting some of the primary sources of this period.

DISCUSSION.

The subjects of the foregoing papers were then taken up by the following speakers:

MISS ELOISE ELLERY, Vassar College: To demand that the student in the secondary school do research work or pass final judgment on the authorities used, does indeed, seem unreasonable; it does *not* seem unreasonable, however, to demand that he shall at least know *what* authorities he has used. Many a student, when asked on entering college, what text-book he has studied, replies vaguely that it was a large book, he thinks it was written by a man named Smith, though it might have been Brown; at all events, the book had a red cover. Such a reply is in itself a revelation of a deplorable ignorance of the value of authority. That the student should be an expert critic is not asked or expected, but that he should have some idea that authorities are of different value is most desirable. He should also appreciate the difference between a primary and a secondary authority; and, while the use of primary courses as a basis for original investigation may be beyond his powers, he should at least be familiar with them as illustrative material.

Again, the student in the secondary school should learn how to use a text-book to the best advantage; he should be familiar with its construction as a book, know how to make use of its index and analytical tables, and above all, he should learn—and this seems to be a most difficult thing for the average student—that all the facts contained in a book are not of equal importance. He should learn how to choose from a page or a paragraph the facts essential to his purpose; in other words, he should cultivate the power of discrimination.

Moreover, he should acquire the habit of looking up the meaning of unfamiliar terms, and the pronunciation of foreign names in the dictionary. The type of student who indicated Garibaldi to his teacher as "an Italian whose name ends in *i*, is too common. The student should also learn to look up references. It has been said that too much reference work is asked. That may in some cases be true; but a sufficient amount should be required to teach the student *how* to search out references for himself. It is a matter of method, not of quantity. The habit of self-reliance and independence thus developed is of the greatest importance, whether the student go to college or not. To allow the student to confine himself to one or two books is to encourage him in the idea that because he has fin-

ished one volume, he has mastered the subject. It is to go back to the time of the mediæval universities, when the idea of absolute authority was typified in the phrase "reading an author" as an equivalent for our modern phrase "taking a course." The student must not be bewildered by too many authorities, but he must be given ideals; and, whatever end be attained, he must always be made to realize that there are still goals beyond.

Once more, the student, before he enters college, should have some idea of the continuity of history instead of a mere collection of unrelated facts—which is too often the extent of his possession. He should realize that nothing "happens," that the history of one country influences the history of others, and that the whole is a continuous development.

And finally, he should have some conception of the connection between history and other subjects. There is special opportunity for making this connection in the work in English. Burke's speech on conciliation with America, for instance, affords an excellent example of available material. But this subject is one which can be worked out only in collaboration.

As for the subject matter, no better period than the American Revolution could have been chosen for illustration. It involves a question on which there are two sides, and it may be treated from numerous points of view, including the military, political, institutional and international. In the treatment of the subject, a basis for differentiation has been suggested in the various stages of the child's mind. In dealing with the first stage, that to which the picturesque appeals, two important lines of work may well be added; the use of illustrative materials, whether in the making of collections by the students themselves or in visits to museums; and pilgrimages to places of historic interest.

In the second stage of this development, the student is appealed to on the side of his emotions. Now in order that he may view the subject with appropriate emotions, it should be presented with the idea of unity. He should be brought to see that Otis and Henry were fighting for the same thing; that North and South had common cause against England; at the same time, in order that patriotism should not be encouraged at the expense of tolerance, he should be led to look at the subject from the English as well as the American point of view. Through the naval history of the war he should be led to perceive the connection of the Revolution with continental Europe, and through a study of the campaigns the influence of geography on history.

In the college, the emphasis, as has been said, should be placed on training the judgment, and the work should be based as far as possible on the sources. The connection with England, already

touched upon, should be further developed; indeed the whole Revolution may well be treated as an event in European history, in its political philosophy, its economic ideas, and its diplomatic relations.

In each of the stages of the child's development the work is thus based on that already done, and the student is led step by step from the known to the unknown. Definite aim is, after all, the main thing, and that aim at all hazards, must not be too low, nor, on the other hand, so high as to be inaccessible.

MISS KATHERINE F. BELCHER, Newark High School: You may remember reading in Professor James' "Psychology" that when he had explained to a friend his idea of the relation of the freedom of the human will to the general scheme of things in the universe, his friend turned to him and said: "Your universe makes me feel faint and dizzy." I must confess that the contemplation of the problem suggested by the first topic, with its infinitely variable factors, has somewhat the same effect upon me. Upon what ground may we plant our feet with any sense of security and peace? However, I find myself emerging from a brief season of wrestling with the subject, clinging to a few convictions that I rather think I may reasonably hope to hold to.

First, That since the solution of the problem virtually demands a definite statement both of subject matter and method for each grade, and since there seems to be little prospect of anything like agreement on these points, and if there were it would not be possible to put it into practice very soon; let us not consider it entirely hopeless to continue to work out our own salvation as individuals, schools, colleges, cities. We have, so far, survived the struggle, and we can thus contribute our quota of experience toward a happier educational future. Meanwhile, in our organizations, committees, discussions, we can be working, theoretically, toward the ideal system. One questions the wisdom of allowing present imperfect and vicious conditions to hamper or limit a programme for the future. Even if we do not, at the present time, see our way clear to carry out the best scheme, yet would not an insistent demand for the *best* tend to create a supply of the *better*?

Second. This ideal scheme of correlation, to my mind, is best carried out, both from the objective and subjective point of view, by the concentric circle plan.

Third. That since the selection of subject matter is in so theoretical and indefinite a state, perhaps we can do more in the immediate future by directing our practical efforts toward a correlation of method. At present each higher grade may not be able

to demand the same set of facts from the grade below it, but it could reasonably demand about the same amount of power and skill. Here I agree most emphatically with the writer of the first paper. To a certain extent we have been trying to force methods for the maturer mind upon the immature student. The senior class in the high school is the natural place for the transition from high school work proper to that of the college. While this work is often well done, yet, after all, this fact does not help the teacher of the college freshman class as much as it ought to, for the simple reason that students who go to college often do not, or cannot, elect the senior history. They must, in all probability, be filling in other discrepancies in this college entrance preparation.

Fourth. That there are some partial and local ways by which the idea of correlation may be cherished, experiences from which will add their share toward the fruition of a universal scheme. The possibility suggests itself of having two divisions in the college freshman class in history, based upon differences in length of preparation; of keeping college entrance examinations rather flexible, with questions framed to discover power of the student as well as knowledge of fact. The uniform entrance questions have proved a great step in advance. A system of accredited schools would seem to be a help to bridge the gulf between the secondary school and the college. Within the high school, heads of departments can do much toward a rational organization of work, both within the special department of history and by plans to correlate this subject with that of other departments, notably English. In the elementary schools the responsibility rests first upon the person or persons whose duty it is to plan the course of study, then upon the supervisors, who must see that this is carried out. A good supervisor can do much to infuse life and unity into the whole scheme, and by frequent conferences with the head of the department in the high school, can help the elementary work in pretty close touch with that of the secondary school.

Fifth. The solution of this problem, as of others, is hampered by the unfortunate conditions of an abnormally crowded curriculum that tends to destroy thoroughness, originality, vitality. It is difficult to plan, and more difficult to carry out, a properly correlated course in a scheme of things that is so crowded. We are sacrificing much that is most precious for the sake of quantity. It takes time, both of the student and of the teacher, to read books, to write special topics, to make maps, even to look at pictures. When a good and reasonably truthful student tells you that she must spend the afternoon and evening to get her work for the next day, you naturally hesitate to add another burden to this already over-burdened and conscientious soul. I

believe that before we can get the work in any one department reasonably correlated, so that it can be practically carried out, we shall have to attempt less, but do what we do more thoroughly, with greater clearness of aim and consistency of method, so that the foundations for each advanced grade may be more definitely and more solidly laid.

MR. HENRY CARR PEARSON, Principal Horace Mann Elementary School: Whatever I may have to say in discussion of Mr. Smith's paper will have to do solely with the elementary school. Let me first emphasize the importance of this Association's considering such a topic as this. It is obvious that a great deal of historical matter has crept into the course of study that has no relation to any fundamental principles of selection, or that is adjusted to the capacity of the pupil. We are all acquainted with the fact that a large percentage of pupils in the elementary school never pass on to the high school; consequently, it has been felt that as much historical material as is possible must be crowded into the elementary field. The result is that our pupils have been suffering from indigestion.

Mr. Smith has been asked to cover a very broad field in a comparatively short time. One would, therefore, be a captious critic to suggest that some of the criteria he has laid down for the selection of material need further definition. For example, it would be difficult for us to reach any agreement as to what we mean by "culture," and quite as difficult for us to reach a mutual understanding as to the significance of the word "discipline."

Mr. Smith's description of the interests and capacity of grammar grade pupils is excellent. He has placed the emphasis where it belongs—upon stirring events, the manners and customs of the people, and upon personality. He has not, however, indicated how far we may well go with young pupils in matters of constitution and government. That something may be done along these lines I think we will all admit, and we will also agree, probably, that in current practice we have gone too far. I heartily agree with the topics Mr. Smith has suggested in a treatment of the causes of the Revolution; but the way these topics are presented to the pupil is very important. They must be presented in a vital way, which will make them as personal as possible. One teacher with whom I am acquainted, in taking up with her class the regulative acts which led to the Revolution, has been in the habit of having her pupils imagine that they were men of business in the colonies, and write letters to parliament describing just how these acts affected their business. This little device enables the children to appreciate thoroughly the effect of these acts of parliament upon the business of the colonies.

Passing on to the Revolutionary period, it would seem to me wise to go into some detail in treating certain typical campaigns. Children are interested in battles, not because they are bloody, but because they involve movement and activity. It would be unwise to attempt to go over the entire Revolutionary period, dealing only with a few general principles, because the mind of the child does not readily assimilate general ideas. It would, therefore, as I have stated, be best to go into certain typical facts of this period with considerable detail, so that the pupils may get a thorough personal acquaintance with the facts and personalities involved. I think that children will readily understand the fundamental facts in the critical period of our history. They readily see why the old Articles of Confederation were a failure, and also appreciate the importance and necessity of a stronger central government. The value of government will be seen as the pupils observe the subsequent growth of the nation. They will see how national growth depends upon a well organized and efficient central government.

With the substance of Mr. Smith's paper, therefore, I thoroughly agree. But much work needs to be done to go over the field thoroughly in the light of our recent experience. A very careful selection of material should be made upon the basis of general principles. This work will involve a great deal of time, and may mean the rewriting of many of our text-books.

DR. LIVINGSTON ROWE SCHUYLER, College of the City of New York, remarked, in regard to the matter spoken of by Professor Robinson, that it seemed hardly possible to leave out without referring to them even the most elementary facts of history, since it often happened in the case of college students, that, owing to the length of time which had elapsed since their work in history had been done in the schools, many absolutely important matters had slipped their memory. He urged a closer relation between the teacher of history in the schools and the college instructor in the subject.

PROF. ELEANOR L. LORD, Woman's College, Baltimore: I have listened with great interest to the remarks which have been made this afternoon relative to the differentiation of courses in history from the lower to higher grades, or, rather, from the younger to the more mature students. The college teachers are attempting to determine what they have a right to expect from students who enter college from the preparatory schools, and the secondary school teachers are complaining that these expectations are unreasonable. I am inclined to agree with the preparatory school teachers, that, if the requirements suggested in the report of the North Central As-

sociation are to be met, the preparatory teachers will have an almost superhuman task to perform. Nevertheless, this interchange of view-points is most desirable, and should be fruitful in bringing about a better understanding between the higher and the lower schools. It is obviously unfair for the college to set a pace which is too high for their constituents; and yet, the standard of the college is largely conditional upon the preparation of the students who enter; and this is obviously to be regulated either by the character of the entrance examinations, or, in case of colleges that admit by certificate, by close supervision of the certificated schools. The plan of personal supervision and visitation pursued by some State universities is perhaps the ideal solution of the problem; but with many colleges this is practically impossible, except in a few cases.

I judge that to colleges of this type and to the secondary schools that are certificated to these institutions, the best method of reaching a mutual understanding is through such organizations as these teachers' associations that include in their membership representatives of various grades of schools, and that offer through such meetings as the present convention and through their printed reports a basis for agreement upon disputed questions of the scope and method of historical study.

DR. JAMES SULLIVAN, High School of Commerce, New York, called attention to points made by Mr. Pearson as to the necessity for making new texts for secondary schools from which facts which had been dealt with in the elementary schools should be eliminated, or at least differentiated in method of treatment and presentation. As an example he said it was not right to have the story of Columbus' voyages told over again in the high school text in almost the same words as they were told in an elementary text. Nor should the story of the barbarian invasions be told again in the college in the same way in which they had been studied in the high schools. College professors should make an attempt to give a different phase of the barbarian invasions from that usually given in the high school. This can be done, but it takes some thought on their part to do it.

SOME OF THE VAGARIES AND AMENITIES OF HISTORY.

CHARLES M. ANDREWS.

PROFESSOR HISTORY BRYN MAWR COLLEGE.

[At the evening session President Andrews delivered the following address:]

In addressing you this evening, I feel that I may take the liberty, as one of yourselves and not an invited guest, of adhering to the subject in which we are all interested and which has formed the main topic of all our discussion. I would not, however, weary you with a further disquisition on the serious aspects of historical training and historical method, with questions of subjects, periods, hours, and points. These belong to the business side of our gathering; they are the subjects which have brought us together, and in the discussion of which we all hope to find the light we are seeking. Fortunately, history is a crystal of many facets; it reflects not only the evolution of human ideas and institutions, but also the vagaries and amenities of the past and the present; and in the search for the hidden truths and in the great task of presenting those truths to the world of pupils, scholars and general readers, the historical teacher and writer finds much to lighten his task, to sharpen the dullness of his search or his routine, to excite amusement or to arouse regret. I would ask your attention to some of these by-products, the amenities and vagaries, not that I would use them as a moral to point a tale, although many a lesson can be taught by contrasts which demonstrate the misuse and abuse of our subject; but I would show that Clio has her whimsies and her antics, and does not always dwell in high places or pursue her way with dignity or scientific precision. The historical teacher, investigator and savant has an opportunity beyond others to develop his sense of humor, to exercise philosophical self-restraint, and to enjoy varieties of experience and diversities of conditions, because all the circumstances of his trades are connected directly or indirectly with human life. The pupils that

are taught, teachers that instruct, the investigators who gather material, the historians who arrange and interpret it, the chroniclers who often furnish our sole information, the makers of documents, and the officials and archivists who preserve them, are human and are possessed of their full quota of human frailties and idiosyncrasies.

The attitude of the child toward history furnishes a wide range of the marvelous and the picturesque. The child lives in the world of to-day; to it history is but the repetition of scenes with which it is familiar, and, like the mediæval Christian who made God after his own image, or the romanticist of the last century, who constructed primitive man according to the ideals that influenced him in his own struggle for political liberty, it builds up a world of its own, without perspective and without proportion, and creates a picture often incongruous and distorted, in which the real is very unreal and the unreal is very real. To children a king is a king, an emperor an emperor, an army an army. Their historical imagination is little developed. They cannot conceive of royalty without its robes and its crown and sceptre, and they dream of Clovis, or Pippin, or Charles the Great, in all the panoply of magnificence, as did the French historians of the eighteenth century when they represented the early Merovingian kings as clothed in the ermine and the splendor of Louis XIV., or saw the lords of manors living amid the glories of stone castles and the trappings of wealth which belong to the later days of feudalism. Like the preraphaelite artists of the Renaissance, they admit into their mental canvas the familiar scenery of their every-day existence, and are quite capable of presenting the life of past days as replete with many of the conveniences and luxuries of modern times. Children have imagination, but it is largely the imagination of the fairy tale; and to them, as well as to many of a larger growth, history is a story which should begin with "Once upon a time," a story which starts nowhere and ends nowhere, a tale of simple action in which the individual is a hero and capable of heroic deeds such as appeal to the childish or immature mind. For such—and they are not always of tender years—the world has been stationary, and into their historical conception the problems of development, of growth, of progress, do not enter; the advancement of ideas and institutions belongs to a world of which

they know nothing and for which they care nothing. To them history is a drama, and their picture of the past is filled with color and glitter, stirring conflicts and no less stirring adventures. For such, old and young, history is a panorama of moving pictures, dependent for its effect, not only on its own dramatic feature, but even more upon the skill of the narrator, the charm of the style, and the ingenuity with which sympathies and susceptibilities are aroused and excited. To the scholar such narratives are but the vagaries of history, to be classed with the eloquent speeches of a great orator or the dramatic presentation of a successful playwright.

Of all the amenities of history, none is more closely bound up with the serious side of history teaching than the strange misunderstandings of children, the striking anachronisms, the numerous errors which represent that most interesting of all processes, the gradual adaptation of the child's mind to the great problems that history furnishes. The child of to-day is far better off than was the child of half a century ago, in the matter of the pictorial illustrations which accompany the historical reader or text-book. Illustrators are gradually learning, even in their imaginative pictures, to present things outwardly as they actually were, to show how different were the men, women, and things of bygone times from the men, women and things of to-day.

In matters of dress, customs, and surroundings, there is no reason why the child should go astray, and in no respect is it so easy to give the child right ideas as in the external peculiarities of the life of the past. It is easy to show that the Greek did not wear a frock coat, or the Roman a high hat, or that the Teuton did not live in marble halls. It is equally easy to make plain that our American ancestors lived crude and primitive lives, ate coarse food, and wore coarse clothing, traveled on foot or in boats, and took long journeys in stage coaches or on horseback. Yet, the older books used to be full of anachronisms in these respects, and the illustrators drew heavily on their imaginations, placing Charles the Great on a magnificent throne, clothing Ivanhoe in heavy plate armor, and crowning the early popes with the tiara, long before the bishops of Rome had advanced the claims that were symbolized in the triple crown.

Though errors in external things may be easy to correct and

are not often committed by pupils of the present day, errors of understanding are of every day occurrence. Simplest of all are those due to ignorance, carelessness and confusion of ideas. What teacher has not found his or her journey through many an arid waste of examination papers made endurable by remarkable lapses from truth or by the incongruous association of disconnected historical ideas or incidents which betray the sad confusion of the pupil's mind. Who does not know of that remarkable child, who, in the disorder of its mental housekeeping, knew only the name Cromwell, and by a double transference of ideas from Wolsey to Thomas and then to Oliver the regicide, placed in the mouth of the latter the extraordinary incongruous and inapposite cry of despair: "Had I served my God as I served my king he would not have given me over in my gray hairs." Or of that other youthful mind that constructed a composite naval battle from parts each of the battles of the Nile, Trafalgar and the engagement of the *Chesapeake* with the *Shannon*, and showed to the astonished reader a picture of Nelson in Aboukir Bay bidding every man do his duty, and then falling back in the arms of his officers with the last injunction, "Don't give up the ship!"

These examples could be multiplied indefinitely. I have had Massachusetts Bay settled by Pilgrims; Magellan, Drake and Vasco de Gama making a wonderful composite trip around the world; Henry VIII. cutting off the heads of all his queens; Cabot making colonial settlements in Labrador; and other historical personages performing similar extraordinary and impossible feats.

What are we to say of the mental condition of that well known though unknown author who wrote of Esau as "the gentleman that wrote a lot of fables and sold the copyright for a mess of potash"; or that other, of whom I have but recently heard, who defined the "Gorgons" as "those sisters that live in the islands of the Hesperides, somewhere in the Indian Ocean, that have long snakes for hair, tusks for teeth, and claws for nails, and look much like a woman only more horrible." Such strange mingling of ideas are generally accompanied by equally extraordinary uses or misuses of words, either invented outright, as in the case of the pupil who wrote that the "Ancient Egyptians practiced metempsychosis and believed that when they died their souls were embalmed," or

confused through similarity of sound as in the case of the little girl who wrote that after "Alexander broke out of Tyre he consumed his journey and proceeded to take Bacteria."

I have a great deal of sympathy for the children who are often brought face to face with words which they cannot understand and with ideas that are distinctly beyond their comprehension. A text-book, written by an Englishman within ten years, is a remarkable offender in this particular, and it is an example of what a text-book ought not to be in the matter of style. Among hundreds of hard words and hard combinations of words are these: "Tumultuary," "governance," "antecedents," meaning previous life; "assimilated," "vernacular," "metropolitan jurisdiction," "anarchical feudal independence," "recrimination," "augmentation," "pacification," "vaunts," "volatile disposition," "rancorous hostilities," "knightly panoply," "recalcitrant," and "autolatrous."

Words of this character, chiefly of Latin origin, without any indication of their meaning from the context, are not the proper material from which to construct a text-book; and it is little wonder that the pupil in preparatory schools halts uncertain of their significance and loses the thread of the narrative in the endeavor to mount these unnecessary obstacles.

As to the kind of teaching that produces the results mentioned above we are left wholly in the dark. That it is not intelligent teaching I am certain, that ignorance begets ignorance is clear enough, for water cannot rise above its own level and the pupil cannot rise superior to a poor teacher and a poor text-book, *ex nihilo nihil fit*.

A more serious vagary than that of incongruous statements in examination papers is the misinterpretation of history due to the failure on the part of teacher and text-book to inculcate a spirit of fairness in the minds of their pupils. No impression received in early years is more difficult to eradicate than the prejudice early formed against institution and individuals of the past. There are probably few persons of the present time who received their school training a quarter of a century ago that do not bear with them still the marks of prepossessions received during their formulative years; prepossessions of race, religion, patriotism, party, section and family. It is almost pathetic even to-day to see

in paper after paper that comes before the examiner's eye evidences of ill-will, of unconcealed preferences, of inability to master the first principles of historical truth, when the discussion turns of such great questions as the mediæval papacy, the relations between Elizabeth and the Puritans, the attitude of England toward the Americans colonies, and the events of our own Civil War.

The child is hardly to blame, for often the very atmosphere in which it lives is permeated with the spirit of unfairness toward neighbors, other churches, other peoples, and other forms of government than its own. The teacher is face to face with one of his most difficult problems, for he is generally called upon to work single-handed, unaided by any other of the studies which the pupil takes in school or college, and is often thwarted by the influence of home, where prepossessions are strongly seated, and by the influence of those to whom fairness is cowardice and an unbiased mind is like an invertebrate animal, without a backbone, inarticulate and weak.

To many a Protestant, fairness toward Roman Catholics is heresy, to many an American fairness toward England is Anglomania, to many a member of the Grand Army of the Republic fairness toward the South is treason. How can a child, brought up in a household where Puritan sympathies are strong, expect to deal honestly with Elizabethan legislation or with the policy of the Habsburgs in Spain; or how can a young man or young woman taught to believe that the Anglo-Saxons are the salt of the earth and democracy the only perfect form of government, expect to be just in his comments on other nations or on types of government that differ as widely from his own as do those of Germany and Russia?

What can you expect of the children when people of an older growth show so little fairness in their sympathies toward others, and particularly when the grown-ups are popular writers of history? It is hard enough to be fair when one has the firm desire to be so; but how impossible it is when the desire is not present and there exists only the conviction that the right is on one side. Historical writers of half a century ago thought nothing of making their works little more than huge party pamphlets.

written to uphold a cause. American writings of the middle of the last century are almost grotesque in their elaborate defense of America and American ideas. In rhetorical sentences and flowing periods they lauded the greatness of our forefathers, and in the midst of their narrative introduced disquisitions on America's future that are nothing more than forensic bombast sadly out of place.

Bancroft not only selected his evidence so as to demonstrate the entire justice of the American cause, but he elaborated his erroneous conclusions in wordy essays filled with patriotic ardor. Palfrey shaped his history of New England into a mighty defense of Massachusetts, and Greeley, in his "American Conflict," but repeated the powerful invectives of the *New York Tribune* against the South. Party prejudice is as strong as that of country, and England furnishes the remarkable instance of a group of men writing in the first half of the nineteenth century who used their historical material and subject as an opportunity for demonstrating the truth of their party doctrines. Macaulay's history of England is but a huge Whig party pamphlet. Mitford's history of Greece is an unconcealed attempt to uphold the cause of monarchy and the Tories, and Thirlwall's history supplements Mitford in the zeal which it displays in defense of aristocratic government. To both of these works the history of Grote is a reply, which, in twelve volumes, applauds the cause of popular liberty and the programme of the Whigs.

Alison, in writing the history of Europe from 789 to 1815, devoted fourteen volumes to defending Tory principles, and Freeman, in his *Norman Conquest*, not only finds precedent for modern democracy in the institutions of the primitive Germans and the Anglo-Saxons, but even goes so far as to portray living statesmen in the guise of certain characters of the past. There is no more remarkable bit of historical writing anywhere than the characterization of Earl Godwine in the days of Edward the Confessor as "the first man who, being neither priest nor king, stands forth in English history as endowed with all the highest attributes of a statesman. In him," says Mr. Freeman, "in those distant times, one can revere the great minister, the unrivalled parliamentary leader, the man who could sway councils and assemblies at his

will. * * * His was the mighty voice, the speaking look and gesture of that old man eloquent, and the voice which has so often swayed assemblies of Englishmen was heard once more in all the fullness of its eloquence." The name of the picture may be Earl Godwine, but the face of the hero is the face of Gladstone.

Over and over again has Clio forgotten the mighty mission of truth that is hers, and not only in England and America, but in France and Germany, has she allowed her devotees to write in her name a defense of their cause and their party. The events from 1850 to 1870 in Europe led many a historian to sharpen his pen for the defense of his national honor; and the histories of that time can only be understood by a full appreciation of the circumstances under which the authors wrote. Giesebrecht composed his volumes on the mediæval empire with the desire—sometimes unconsciously felt—of advocating the cause of a modern German Empire. The work of Fustel de Coulanges found its inspiration in the Franco-Prussian war, and in the wish not only to show that the early Teutonic migrations into Gaul had had like effect on that land; but also to demonstrate the superiority of French scholarship over that of Germany. He wished to defeat Germany with the pen, if not with arms. Lamartine's history of the Girondists is but a glorification of the Reign of Terror; Thiers' history of the Consulate and the Empire is but a glorification of Napoleon in the interest of the Napoleonic legend; and Sybel's founding of the German Empire is but a glorification of a spotless Bismarck.

Such a list might be continued indefinitely, but I have said enough to show that if the master's work betrays the trail of the serpent, we cannot expect the apprentice to keep himself free from the taint. An interesting study could be made of the relations that have existed between historical literature and the political influences at work shaping the thoughts and sharpening the prejudices of the writers of history in the past; and from our study we would certainly draw the conclusion that no historical work should be read until the reader has studied carefully the career of the writer and the circumstances of the time in which he wrote. Prepossessions could thus be anticipated and discounted, and the peculiarities of many a well-known and widely read historical work could thus be understood.

To the historical scholar few forms of historical writings are more fantastic than those which deal with what Balzac has called the "seamy side of history," and which that great realist has portrayed so wonderfully in his *Human Comedy*. Whimsical, freakish, and capricious, such literature is not history, but gossip. Dealing with life below stairs, searching for the morbid, the grotesque, and the picturesque, such writers glide merrily over the surface, portraying the private lives of kings, princes, and courtiers, revelling in the intrigues and incidents of court life, working out with elaborate fullness the negotiations of diplomats and the plots of conspirators, more concerned for the dramatic aspects of their subject than for the meaning and significance of the event they are portraying. Neglecting nine-tenths of their subject that they may find food for entertainment in the other tenth, they fail entirely to realize that in the great majority of cases the policies of kings, the negotiations of statesmen, and the intrigues and maneuvers of queens and favorites are not the great motor forces in the life of a nation, and that the vision of *Pier's Ploughman* is of greater moment and importance to the student than are the chronicles of Froissart. The age of Edward III. and Charles II. in England, of Louis XIV., Napoleon I. and Napoleon III. in France, and of the despots in the cities of Italy, have been treated far too frequently as if the sole interest of those periods lay in tales of courts and tournaments, corrupt politics, court immoralities, glittering shows, dynastic quarrels, divorces and marriages, prodigalities of expenditure, and all the changes of royal and imperial ambition, and not, as is generally the case in the discontent and strivings of the great masses of the people.

In some respects more serious than the superficial treatment of history, is the tendency, more prevalent fortunately in the past than it is to-day, to treat history as if it were but a tale of the vices of men, to deal with those aspects of the past that seem to be characterized by an excess of human depravity, and to interpret them as if they furnished no other lesson than that of showing how wicked men could be. Writers have taken a peculiar pleasure in dwelling upon the evidence of original sin in human life, and of deeming the field of human existence a battle ground for the victories of his Satanic majesty. To such writers, men in power are all corrupt,

individual policies are but the outcome of vicious selfishness, ambition, and desire for revenge; feudalism is lawless anarchy; the crusades are a series of useless expeditions inaugurated by ambitious popes and kings thirsting for war and carnage, and characterized by brutality and bloodshed; the mediæval papacy is a corrupt organization, devoid of spirituality, lusting for power, deceiving its followers and denying to them the benefits of an enlightened Protestantism; England of the eighteenth century is a tyrannical government, oppressing her colonies, brutally endeavoring to coerce them into obedience, that she might enslave them to her will. Such writers are prodigal in their personal judgments and their adjectives. According to them, feudal lords are wicked and greedy; monks are lascivious and gluttonous; burghers are purse-proud and usurious; peasants downtrodden and enslaved. Peter the Great and many other emperors are brutal despots; Frederick William of Prussia is a military maniac; Madame de Maintenon a cunning and canting hypocrite; the Georges, especially since the days of Thackeray, are all fools; Napoleon is called anti-Christ, and his grand-nephew is variously dubbed charlatan, adventurer, and imbecile. Such writers—and they are many—take a peculiar delight in searching the private lives of the men who hold prominent places in the history of the past, and in judging not only the individual, but his age also, according to the number of his immoralities and his lapses from honor and the truth. Men reading the usual accounts of the reign of Charles I. in England would discover that that period of twenty-five years is one of the most important eras in English history, marking the transition from old to modern England in finance, commerce, colonial policy and political progress. From the older accounts of the Reign of Terror in France the reader will learn much of the operation of the guillotine, and nothing of the great revolution that had taken place in the social and constitutional order. Even in the history of the century just past, the career of Metternich has been almost invariably characterized as one of narrow-minded, selfish egotism, while every rebel against the authority of kings is lauded as a hero and a patriot. As long as those who pretend to write history allow their minds to dwell on the incidents of individual careers, take pleasure in searching out the vicious traits inherent in too many of those who have stood in places of prominence and authority, and

deem themselves justified in passing judgment upon men's lives and actions without taking into account social tendencies and the tenacity of conservative ideas, they will pervert history into a monstrous tale of iniquity. The private lives of individuals, unless such lives have left a distinct impress upon the general history of the time, as in a measure was true of the lives of Henry VIII. and Louis XV., from no portion of the material of history. The immoralities of Charles II. play but an insignificant part in the actual advancement of England's welfare during his reign.

Did time permit, we might deal at length with other vagaries of historical literature. We might see history made as well as history written, as if men still believed in the theory of chance, finding in the past only a fortuitous sequence of events, without cause or effect; and in the present an opportunity of governing states and making laws as if no other factors were to be considered than those of personal interest and expediency, without regard to the influence of the ideas and tendencies already existent in the social order. To such men the history of the world would have been changed had Cleopatra's nose been an inch longer, had Rome's supply of gold been constant, had this or that person been snuffed out of existence in his cradle. Such men are all believers in a world of chance. To them "great events ever depend on a single hair. The adroit man profits by everything, neglects nothing which can increase his chances; the less adroit, by sometimes disregarding a single chance, fails in everything." Napoleon seems to have held this view, and so apparently did some of those who hated him, if we may believe the following anecdote.

One day in 1813, when that veteran revolutionary, the Prince of Nassau, was accompanying Napoleon on a river excursion, and observing the emperor leaning far over in the boat scanning with curious interest the castle of Biberich, he remarked to a terrified companion, "What a curious attitude; the fate of the world depends on a kick or two." How well did Mazzini answer this worthless view of history when he said, "Is history a tale told by an idiot, signifying nothing?"

At the other extreme is the conception of history as the resultant of fixed laws, in which individuals are but puppets in the hands of great social forces, which operate as do the laws of na-

ture, fixed and invariable. Such a doctrine finding its most virile exponents in Comte, Buckle and Draper, has been taken up by the sociologists and presented with modifications in what is known as the materialistic view of history, according to which economic factors, food, drink, environment, the conditions of life and the distribution of wealth and comforts become the great factors of history, and when taken into conjunction with the influence of heredity become the only causes worth considering of historical action and reaction. Such writers recognize no such thing as free will; to them man's actions are uniformly determined by pre-existing motives, which render it impossible that man should choose to act in any other way than that predetermined by the hereditary influences within him and the environmental forces about him.

The logical conclusion of this law of determinism, as the philosophers call it, is, as Prof. Karl Pearson declares, that if you could know all the motives and influences you could predict the future movements of manflind as unerringly as you can predict the movements of the planetary system, thus denying the existence of free will as that incalculable element which many writers feel renders history impossible as a science. Though originating with the philosophers, this conception of history has found favor with many an economist who has applied it to events of the past. In their treatment of history the complex causes of historical events give way to simple but to them satisfying explanations. Great organic changes are no longer the outcome of mental and social strivings, no longer find root in political and religious ideals, but are due to purely material causes.

The introduction of good roads, warm woolen clothes, sweets, ovens, bathtubs and better built houses has, they say, transformed mediæval England into modern England. A damp, cold climate is sufficient to explain the character of the early Germans. The supremacy of France in the eighteenth century was overthrown by England simply because of the deficiency of the supply of wheat in France, and by Germany at Sedan because the latter country had attained economic superiority over France in the cultivation of her lands, improvement of her roads, growth of her cities, and progress in industrial arts. Industrial improvement affected

poetry and religious thought. Religious service and prayer are simply the results of disasters, disorders and privations in the material world; praise is but the outlet of surplus energy in times of industrial prosperity. Temperance is not a moral but an economic issue due to the introduction of cheap food and a sugar diet. The nation of the future will be that which will and can control the sugar supply of the world.

Though there is a great deal of truth in many of these assertions, there is not enough to justify the inference that individuals are of no importance in history and that faiths, creeds, art and literature are merely the outcome of an economic surplus, the result of a new invention or of the introduction of a new element in the food supply.

More novel even than the economic interpretation of history is that of the biologist, psychologist and alienist, who, dealing with the lives of many of the individuals of the past, have endeavored to explain their careers in terms of pathology; to find in certain abnormal conditions of mind or body an explanation of human actions and a sufficient warrant for human success or failure. Having studied the evidence which history furnishes, they have decided that there are marked indications of a morbid constitution, an impaired state of health, a diseased mind.

Alexander, we are told, died in a fit of madness, due to a nervous disorder; Julius Cæsar was the first epileptic as Shakespeare notes when he makes Casca say that Cæsar "fell down in the market place and foamed at the mouth and was speechless," to which Brutus replies, "'Tis very likely; he had the falling sickness." After these have come a strange series of diseased characters in history; Mohammed, whose visions had a very business-like character, according to his latest biographer, Margoliouth; Bunyan, whose career lends itself readily to the psycho-physicist; Robert Clive, who was passionate, gouty, morbid and an opium-eater, and committed suicide at forty-nine; Rousseau, who was certainly at times mentally disordered; Napoleon, whose nervous sensibility, weak moral sense, attacks of dizziness and faintness have been similarly diagnosed by the Italian Tebaldi; Wellington, whose fainting fits after Waterloo, and the epileptic fall from his horse, which caused his death, have placed him in the same class;

Charles V., who had fits in his youth and was gouty, bald and scrofulous; Frederick the Great, who betrayed an entire lack of the element of mercy and was of general mental unsoundness; Joan of Arc and the Holy Maid of Kent, both of whom were visionaries and clairvoyants; and lastly the founder of Mormonism, Joseph Smith. Even Oliver Cromwell has not escaped the charge, and a recent Spanish writer has decided that William II. of Germany is a neurotic.

Each of these, say the students of mental diseases, possessed constitutions that place them among the unbalanced, the abnormal and the delinquent geniuses of history; each was a neuropath or neurotic, epileptic or clairvoyant. Even professed historians would attribute the eventual failure of great men, such as Napoleon, to diseases which impaired their powers, while some of the professional medical writers (like the French doctor Cabanès) who have a strange fondness for making excursions into history, would ascribe scores of the lesser incidents of history to the working of pathological influences.

Captivated with the idea that history is but a branch of biology and should be termed not history but "biometry," a recent American biologist has been exploiting the family trees of the royal houses of Europe and has decided that hereditary traits are the keys with which to unlock great historical problems. Needless to say, his work has little historical significance. Yet, some of these pseudo-historians are so persistent as to make us feel that no one can be great who is not pathologically diseased.

Let me pass from these vagaries and curiosities of historical literature to some of the amenities of historical research, no less extraordinary as exhibiting the frailties of human nature and the negligence or carelessness of those into whose hands have come the materials upon which the historian depends for his evidence. When we realize how scanty is the material for the writing of certain periods of history and how valuable are certain documents that by the narrowest chance have escaped the destructive hand of man, we can fully understand that the chapter which concerns itself with such losses and escapes is one of the most exasperating that the historian is called upon to read. The wear and tear of time and the destructive effects of fire are sufficient to effect great

inroads into the total mass of documents available for use, without it, happening that human beings, by sheer neglect and perversity, should add to the sum of those losses. Yet, the experience of every investigator in almost every field of research is fraught with disasters of this kind, and it is well known that in ancient and modern history alike there are documentary tragedies.

Many to whom one record is as good as another, may not appreciate the significance of such losses. They may point to the vast accumulation of documentary material that is collecting every day in every part of the world; they may refer to the fact that the records of our War Office alone fill 100 rooms, and that the records of the volunteer forces alone weigh over 1,000 tons, fill ten miles of shelving and require a catalogue of 52,000,000 cards; and they may think, if they do not say it, that as war and epidemic are good to keep down the surplus population, so a few fires might be useful to reduce this enormous accumulation of material in historical archives. With such persons I have nothing to do; they would sell their country's historical birthright for "a mess of potash," and had they their own way, would aid in rendering the tale of destruction longer than it is now. I address myself only to those who, like the authorities of the British Museum, consider every scrap sacred and who would not permit to be lost a fragment of a documentary collection that falls into their hands.

To such right-minded persons the loss of a collection of papers is like the sweeping away of precious heirlooms, and the recovery of a document supposed to be lost, is like the return of the prodigal son, deserving to be greeted with joy and thanksgiving. There are few more interesting tales than those which recount the career of Bradford's *History of Plimouth Plantation*, sometimes called the "Log of the Mayflower"; Winthrop's *History of New England*; Hutchinson's *History of Massachusetts Bay*, and the autobiography of Benjamin Franklin. In these cases the story of adventure, like the old-time fairy tale, ends happily, and the priceless documents survived their adventures, and, except for one manuscript volume of Winthrop's history, finally returned, safe and sound, into the hands of careful custodians. With other manuscripts, however, this is not always the case. I may pass by without comment the destruction of

many of Thomas Hutchinson's papers by a Boston mob, or the sacking of the house of the loyalist Galloway with the consequent loss of six out of eight of Franklin's letter books. I have no time to do more than mention the fires in Washington in 1800 and 1814, which cost this country so many of its valuable early records; the burning of the British Custom House about 1720, which destroyed great masses of valuable statistical material, or the fire in October, 1731, which damaged irretrievably so large a part of the famous Cottonian collection, now in the British Museum. Fires have always been the arch enemy of the historian. I would say a few words of some of the exasperating losses due to the ignorance or vandalism of the owners of manuscripts. When, in the year 1800, the British House of Commons took into consideration the state of the public records of the kingdom, it was obliged to report that in many of the most important offices it had found the papers exposed to erasure, alteration, and embezzlement, lodged in places where they were daily perishing by damp, or incurring a continual risk of destruction by fire, some of the most valued papers so injudiciously used by previous investigators that the handwriting, rendered often illegible by time, had been practically destroyed by the use of an infusion of galls employed to make clear for the moment the evanescent handwriting, but in the end tinging the vellum or parchment page black to the very center of the skin. If such neglect characterized the treatment of the official records of the kingdom, we cannot read with surprise of the fate of the library founded by the munificence of Richard Whittington at the Guildhall, when three carloads of volumes, probably composing the entire collection, was lent to Lord Protector Somerset in the days of Edward VI., and on his downfall in 1552 was irrecoverably lost. Nor can we be surprised that Bishop Kennet's invaluable library of early books, maps, charts and pamphlets, relating to early American history, and presented to the Venerable Society, should have been so little valued that it lay for years unnoticed and uncared for, separated and thrown about in garrets and in cellars, defaced and mutilated, and in large part damaged or destroyed. To the student of American colonial history that collection to-day would be priceless, yet but the merest handful of the pamphlets and papers remain at the present time in the possession of the society.

Custodians have been in the past notoriously careless with their records, and any one familiar with national or local archives in England or America has found ample illustration of this fact. The great collection of the Loyalist papers after 1803 was thrown into the cellar of Somerset House in London and lay there in the wet for years, unprotected and constantly exposed to theft. In consequence, not only are many of the papers missing, but in great numbers of cases the handwriting is so washed out as to be illegible. I have found bundles of parchments among the records of the High Court of Admiralty that are literally half eaten by constant exposure to water, and when, not ten years ago, they were examined for the first time, they were as if they had been glued together. Yet neglect is better than deliberate destruction, which was the policy adopted by two towns in Onondaga County, New York, when a few years ago they burned up all their early records as the most convenient way of solving the problem of storage.

Two famous instances of recovered documents are those of certain of the Franklin manuscripts, of which an admirable account can be found in the introduction to the new edition of Franklin's writings by Professor A. H. Smyth. Franklin himself never destroyed so much as an invitation to a dinner, and as is well known, even with all the losses, the mass of his papers to-day is very large. One collection that was carried to England by his grandson, William Temple Franklin, and in part edited by him, disappeared after the younger Franklin's death, and was finally found some years after on the top shelf in a tailor's shop, where Temple Franklin had lodged. A part of them had already been used by the tailor as material for his patterns. Another collection left in America was found stored in the garret of a stable in New Jersey, but not until a part had already been sold to a paper mill in order that a new kitchen carpet might be paid for. Each of these collections waited forty years after their discovery for a purchaser; the first collection, found in 1840, was finally bought by the United States Government in 1888, and the second by a number of Philadelphians in 1903. Such instances as these are cited as samples of the strange fate that sometimes follows collections of historical documents. The paper mill, as well as fire, is the devouring enemy of the historian.

Though I may be abusing your courteous forbearance in pro-

longing this review of some of the vagaries and amenities of history, I would cite one more example. We do not often find in the style which writers adopt a source of amusement, or have reason to deal frequently in historical works with "English as she is wrote." There are, of course, historians who furnish ample illustrations of all sorts of grammatical errors, of looseness and carelessness in matters of form and construction, of magnificent rhetoric, mixed metaphors, and realistic similes. I had planned to give you a few examples to show how English could be written by scholars, young and old. But I am merely going to give you a quotation of English written in the name of well-known German historians, editors of a prominent German journal, who are making an appeal to the American public to support their publication. The appeal will probably remind you of the Americanized French, German, or Italian that many of us speak when abroad; and if we feel in the process that we are conspicuous in our ignorance, here is the opportunity to take our revenge. I cannot say who wrote the following effusion, whether editors or publishers, but it is at least charitable to think that it was made up by a clerk, who laboriously put it together with the aid of a dictionary:

"The Journal shall serve the investigation of economical conditions and developments of all times and nations and keep distant from the treatment of problems of the theoretical and national economy of the present time. In its strict historical tendency it shall account for a general want of historical investigation and social knowledge, pursuing the economical appearances in their developments and their causes, thereby forming a point of concentration for the economical historical investigation of all countries. Therefore are welcome to the journal such contributions as will treat the agricultural conditions as well as the political of economy of the past from the point of view of scientific contemplation, nor is the communication of authentic materials excluded.

"The review of literature will bring to the knowledge of the readers treaties of economical historical contents as well as some material published elsewhere.

"As hitherto so in future compositions, referring to German conditions, will for the most part find their due place; the more so for the external circumstance that meanwhile in Germany the

economical historical studies flourish the most. But a large space the journal will grant to treaties on the conditions of other countries. There are indeed in the social and economical history enough problems of international characters which may not be dissolved within the frame of history of a single nation. Besides, the editors believe to be able to promote the more and more flourishing economical historical studies of other states by the international character of their journal.

"All the sides of social and economical history will materially find their value as have been taken regard in the past volumes to the history of coins and parliament, the price-movement as well as the economical politic, agriculture, industry and commerce, the conditions of antiquity as well as those of middle age and modern time by treaties in details. A number of renowned scholars who in different countries have engaged to regular fellow-work will be responsible for the journal's being satisfactory also in that respect to all justified claims. The more prominent appearance of economical literature will be discussed in critics and in particular scientific regions comprising conferences, the want for most possible complete bibliographical review will be accounted for. The critic will in all cases abstain from personal attacks and try to estimate in their full signification valuable appearances, but in material respect we shall not know any regards."

This announcement, which reads very much as might a translation from English into German by an American college sophomore, is matched by the attempt of another German, who could find no other equivalent for the customary "Please turn over," than "Twirl the page."

I have now finished my list of some of the incidents and by-products of historical study and teaching and shall spare you any elaborate conclusions drawn from what I have said. The inferences that might be drawn are clear enough. Teaching should be accurate and intelligent and the student should be taught not only to acquire but also to understand. Enthusiasm on the part of the teacher arouses curious and inquisitiveness on the part of the pupil, and the standard of the class room should be always a little ahead of what seems to be the ordinary ability of the class. The history taught should be objective and impartial, free from

ethical judgments and free from the bias of ignorance or parochialism, from the whimsicalities of the narrow-minded, and the ill-balanced opinions of those with particular views to impart or doctrines to defend. Every person interested in history should be interested in the materials of history and should play his or her part, however small it may be, in the preservation of the evidence upon which the work of the historian rests. In supporting historical societies, influencing legislators, encouraging the placing of valuable papers in fire-proof archives, and contributing to the publication of historical material there is a wide range of opportunity for everyone, whether historical reader, teacher or writer, to accomplish some good thing for the cause which every loyal American should have earnestly at heart.

At the Saturday morning session Prof. Edward G. Bourne, of Yale University, delivered a most instructive and scholarly address on the "Training of Teachers for the Teaching of History." Professor Bourne has, unfortunately, been too much occupied with other matters to write out his address for publication in this report, and the Secretary has been compelled, in consequence, to publish the minutes without Professor Bourne's paper. He was followed by the following speakers:

THE PREPARATION OF THE HISTORY TEACHER.*

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Every sympathetic touch with life is of value to the teacher who hopes to understand either the essential nature of the subject-matter, or its value as an educational means in a course of study. Her task is to prepare young minds to appreciate the steps in the evolution of man in society, as that evolution has been traced by historians. An *ideal teacher* of history should be familiar with the progressive realization of the ideals of the human spirit as these are portrayed in tradition, language, literature, manners, customs, laws, institutions, opinions and beliefs. In order to approximate to a thorough comprehension of these ideals, she must have the power to see relation, proportion, light and shade, as well as the power to recognize tendency and to appreciate the subtle spirit of the age. It is necessary that she understand not only the relative importance of different periods of history, but the relative importance of the events within each period. She must be able to select the typical man and the characteristic incident. In addition to this familiarity with subject matter, the ideal teacher should be able to determine what constitutes adequate preparation of each incident, typical man, event or period, so that the whole impression may be not only true and accurate, but real. She must be able to stimulate the pupils under her guidance to gain an impression of the past that shall be true not only to life, but to life that has been lived by real people, in definite places, during designated periods of time. The impression should be true in feeling, in motive, in character, in proportion and in perspective. It follows naturally from the foregoing that the ideal teacher must have insight into character and life. The teaching of history by a person so prepared for the task, might well be considered the most spiritual act of a social nature that any human being could perform.

*Abstract of the address given at Trenton, March 10, 1906.

How shall the preparation be made? What shall it include? Where shall the aspirant get the necessary inspiration? How much knowledge of subject matter is necessary? We are told repeatedly that the history teacher must have a thorough knowledge of history; but it takes only a few years of earnest study to convince any mature person that a thorough knowledge of all history is utterly impossible for any human being; consequently the queries, How much general knowledge? How much special knowledge? How much research? How much skill in weighing evidence? How much skill in the use of the tools of history?—are pertinent to the subject under discussion. In regard to subject matter, it will be well to insist that any person desirous of becoming a teacher of history, whether in the elementary grades or in the high school, should give evidence that she has studied history intelligently from the student's point of view. Then she should be given inspiration to study the same subject matter from a teacher's point of view. To enable her to appreciate the worth and dignity of such study, let her examine the way in which the great historians of the nineteenth century have studied their subject matter and prepared themselves to understand it and make it comprehensible to others. Parkman's preparation may serve as an illustration. * * * His preparation may be contrasted and compared with that of Geo. Bancroft, H. H. Bancroft, Gibbon (eighteenth century), Gardner, Stubbs, Henry Adams, and other great American and European historians. This will reveal to her something of the nature of real history study actually performed by great men, each in his own way. She will learn that each historian has certain excellencies, that all have some defects. Such work will prove not only interesting, but inspiring. Their laborious work has made hers easier. She, too, must search diligently for material. It is part of her problem to know where to look, and to know how to estimate and rank the various historical works used. She, too, must endeavor to make the real character of events not only comprehensible to herself, but to others. She, too, must learn to sympathize with the human interests which underlie the subject matter with which she deals. So much for the inspiration.

The next step in the young teacher's preparation is to study a short period of history in order to prove by a little practical experience how valuable it is to examine even a text-book with care. She

learns the purpose the writer had in view, the class of students for which it was intended, the character of the preparation made by the author. Her attention is directed to the amount of outside reading necessary to make the statements of the text-book intelligible. She notes the amount of suggestion for additional reading contained in the book itself. She realizes the need of still further illustration and interpretation on the part of the teacher to make certain passages clear. She learns by actual experiment the use she can make of contemporary material. By constant comparison of the works of two or three secondary historians, she recognizes a difference in their treatment of the same period as to character of facts selected, the manner of grouping and the placing of emphasis. She also learns from experience what biographies will add interest, and make her knowledge of the period more unified and real, what literature will make her impressions more vivid and hence more permanent. She understands to what extent geographical knowledge is essential to the comprehension of some historical facts. Owing to much practice, she can note her own increase in skill in using indexes, tables of contents and card catalogues. She has learned something of the value of historic manuals, and the value of appeals to the eye as well as the ear in history study. She learns what a bibliography is by actually making one, as well as by using bibliographies made by others. She is constantly analyzing and grouping historical material in order to appreciate the difference between important and less important. She discovers that each historic leader or group of incidents must be duly subordinated to the central idea which gives character to the period under consideration. When a young teacher has spent several consecutive months in study of this character, she is able to understand why a teacher of history for any given period needs a more extensive knowledge of that period than is to be found in a single text-book or in two or three different text-books plus a few accounts taken from encyclopedias. If this work is done in a class with twenty-five or thirty classmates, there will be many other benefits in the way of observing the different points of view of classmates, their different ways of arriving at the same conclusions, different degrees of aptitude and skill in handling material. Some are quick to glean just what an author says, but show little power in analyzing it or recognizing its significance. Some are slow to

detect a bias in an author even when warned that it is there. Others can discern a bias or test for the truth of an assertion without assistance from the teacher.

In studying history in this spirit the difference between form and content in history is being emphasized constantly. Each student teacher is compelled to try to get back of the action described, to the thought and feeling that prompted the act. In other words, she is learning to trace the subject matter of history back to its "psychological roots." She acquires the habit of asking herself in regard to each work she consults: Who wrote this? What preparation has he made for the task? When did he write it? Where was it written? Was he able to tell the truth? Was he willing to tell the truth? She cultivates this habit because she appreciates that lack of caution in such respects often results in waste of much time and laborious effort. She realizes with Gibbon that it pays to go to the fountain-head rather than waste time with authors who are not in a position to give accurate information.

How long should this practical study continue? How much ground should be covered? The answer to these queries is: (1) Cover a sufficient amount of ground to make the young teacher feel that there is a continuity in history; that history is a series of developments marking human progress. (2) Continue the work long enough to secure a mental attitude which will prevent the student from looking for perfect candor in a funeral oration, or in speeches delivered in connection with birthday celebrations. (3) Continue practical work until the student has acquired a habit of mind which induces her to hesitate to pronounce judgment without sufficient data. Attitude of mind, rather than amount of knowledge must determine when we may pass to the more pedagogical part of her training—the investigation of the educational value of history, and methods of teaching history. There is a large collection of articles written in English on this subject. When read and digested the educational values of history may be classified under comparatively few headings. It is most important that Normal students should note, first that many of the values claimed do not apply to history as it can be taught in the elementary or the high school.

Second, that of the educational values that may belong to history as a school study, none will result unless the subject be taught well. The value of history as a means of showing the Normal students how the various branches of the school curriculum are related must be emphasized. The study of educational values is closely associated with methods of instruction. Thus far in her study the Normal student has been considering the organized material of history as a subject of study for people of her own age. She has been looking at it as it formulates itself in the mind of the historian. She has had to perform certain mental processes in gaining her own conception of history. She knows that the historical investigator, as a rule, began not with his own observation, but with somebody's record of an observation, or, in other words, with a psychological trace which might prove to be a recollection, and as she followed his method of work she saw that in the end, that which is called his history, is, in reality, a body of knowledge which represents a series of mental processes. Not until the Normal student can analyze the subject matter of history into its mental processes can she appreciate the truth or error in the statements in regard to its educational value. It is only by knowing the mental processes which the subject of history is capable of stimulating a learner to perform that a teacher can determine what constitutes a proper method in teaching the subject. All the insight that the Normal student has acquired thus far as to the real nature of history, and the real character of history study will serve her now as a means to help her in the solution of the problem of method. She has learned how a knowledge of psychology was indispensable to the historical investigator. She has yet to realize how a knowledge of psychology helps the teacher to select suitable material, and to choose wisely the mode of its presentation.

Her attention is now directed to the child and his intellectual equipment. Her knowledge of psychology is reviewed for the purpose of determining what mental trait is most predominant in the earliest years of school life. Psychology says imagination.

The young teacher must be thoroughly instructed as to the function the imagination plays in learning history in the primary grades, in the grammar grades, in the high school, as well as its

function in the teaching of history and in the writing of history.

* * * It is not enough to stimulate and strengthen the imagination. The importance of its control must be emphasized.

* * * The teacher's problem is to find material by means of which the pupil's imagination may be enriched, and a foundation laid for the future study of history. She aims to widen his horizon, enlarge his sympathies, and thus prevent the possibility of vulgarity and narrowness later in life. * * *

While such work is not, strictly speaking, history at all, it has great value as preparation for the later stages of the work. * * * By means of the imagination one can magnify, diminish, qualify and combine experiences so as to make them serve for purposes entirely new. She needs accurate experiment, sense impression, memory and observation for her imagination to work upon. The imagination thus stimulated, when controlled by experience and reflection, enables one to reconstruct the past. It enables her to put herself in another's place and thus learn charity or reverence. * * *

The department of history in a Normal school should emphasize the value of each phase of history as a means to excite and direct mental power. The Normal student must be led to see how the history taught in one grade prepares for the next. * * * She needs constant practice in viewing history in longitudinal sections. She is led to consider the history course in any school of several grades as a scheme in which the subject matter unfolds gradually year by year and thus corresponds to the growth of mind itself. This knowledge she acquires partly through theoretical instruction and partly through reading supplemented by personal observation in the grades for verification. * * *

All this discussion of the character of subject matter and the necessity of adapting the materials to the various stages of progress in the unfolding mind of the child is to prevent her from becoming a slave to rule and device, and consequently an unskilled laborer instead of an inspired artist with a live, critical sense, an aim in view and an intelligent comprehension of some means by which her purpose may be furthered. * * * No person can teach well unless she is an earnest student of mind activity, as well as subject matter. No Normal student is able to translate practical devices into their psychological equivalents unless she has

learned through observation to notice the signs of interaction of mind upon mind. A teacher accustomed to the habit of watching for the possibilities of subject matter or graphic illustration to call forth mental responses, mental attitudes and methods of study soon becomes sensitive to signs of intellectual activity. With much practice she will gain the power to select the kind of subject matter and the form of presentation best fitted to call out and direct mental activity. Then her teaching is characterized by spontaneity. * * * The power to interpret devices which the Normal student has seen used shows that she understands how and why they work. Such power makes her an intelligent critic as to their proper use and adaptation. Not until the young teacher has gained considerable insight into the mental characteristics of children in the various grades, and sees the possibilities of history used as a means to stimulate the child's mental activity, and recognizes the real nature of the teaching process, is she prepared to read with intelligence works discussing the educational value of history or books on methods in history. * * *

She must learn how to use illustrative material effectively, how to conduct conversational lessons that will induce correct habits of mind, how to select stories suitable for a given class, and how to tell a story well. * * *

The next step in her preparation is to thoroughly digest the history material suitable for young children, so that she may evolve in her own mind the grouping, the presentation which shall stamp the meaning and the significance of the event upon the minds of the pupils. * * * The presentation should be truthful, dignified, simple and within the range of the child's comprehension. The primary requirement is organic unity. * * * Such work demands on the part of the young teacher a combination of logic, imagination and the gift of expression. Each historic incident has a unity of its own. Details must be grouped in a contributory way round a central idea. There must be a foreground and a background as well as a center of interest. All facts must be grouped so as to show the relative importance of the several incidents. * * * The treatment of simple incidents is possible in primary grades, and the grouping increases in complexity as we pass from lower to higher. The older pupils' fasci-

nation for history increases when they are led to trace the sequence by which successive occurrences are seen to issue in their necessary results, or when they note how causes apparently remote converge upon a common end. * * *

The personality of the teacher and her attitude toward life must be considered. The quality of her daily living is a part of her professional training. * * * The history teacher acts as a guide in interpreting history. She must hold the scales of justice with an even hand in estimating the life-work and character of historical personages. It is desirable that she emulate Webster in being unwilling to lessen the just fame, character and renown of deserving heroes, but she must not be too much given to hero worship. Fascination carries with it a power of illusion under which one is liable to exaggerate merits and hide defects. No amount of investigation will make a teacher truthful if the spirit of fairness be wanting. If her ideals are low, and her standard of personal worth faulty, or if her horizon is limited she will fail to appreciate the greatest characters in history. * * * No teacher can see more than she has made herself capable of seeing. Nor can she explain fully what she is not capable of sharing. The motive power of achievement in history teaching lies in human sympathy. Genuine feeling, deep human sentiment, strong, pure emotional life make great things possible, and furnish the superb motive power which enables a teacher to do her best. It is this inner power which enables her to experience the delight of understanding little children as well as inquiring youth.

THE TEACHING OF HISTORY.

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There are moods in which men have denied the truth and credibility of what we call history. Napoleon declared sarcastically that "history is fiction agreed upon;" and we have all recognized that infinite opportunities for loss and error must be allowed for in the serious study of history. "Truth comes to us from the past," says Bovee, "as gold is washed down from the mountains of the Sierra Nevada, in minute but precious particles and intermixed with infinite alloy, the debris of centuries." Mr. Chesterton, in his too brief essay on Maeterlinck, says, in much the same vein: "No one can feel any doubt that we have heard about Christ and Socrates and Buddha and St. Francis, a mere chaos of excerpts, a mere book of quotations. * * * Great things, like Christianity of Platonism, have never been founded upon consistent editions; all of them have been founded upon scrap-books." Generally, it must be true, that the more remote an age the less knowledge of it can survive to our day. Looking back through the centuries may be compared to peering into a vast forest, in which the near trees hide thousands of the more distant, but in which here and there a long and favoring vista shows a few stems, deep in the forest, but perhaps lit by the sun into prominence—a King Alfred the Great, a Cato, a Pericles. The rest is darkness.

Nor is it only that our knowledge of the past is marred with gaps or lacunæ. An unknown proportion of error has mingled with what has come down to us. Every one is familiar with the anecdote of Sir Walter Raleigh, who, when in prison and at work upon his history of the world, was drawn to his window by the sound of a brawl in the courtyard. He, as he thought, witnessed and understood all that occurred, but subsequently, in conversation with a friend, he discovered that he had missed seeing an essential part, and had misunderstood the whole occurrence. Disgusted, he cast his

manuscript into the fire; for if he, a questioner of events, could err in regard to an incident he actually had observed, how could one believe that the history of remote times is trustworthy? And even in comparatively recent times that form of fabrication called myth has crept in to confuse and deceive us—witness the legend of William Tell, or that of Pocahontas, or even down almost from our own generation, what many regard as the myth of Marcus Whitman and the Oregon country.

But when we turn from the *what* to the *why*, our ignorance of history seems even greater. Every trial in court sufficiently proves how hard it is to gain the bare facts, though from the mouths of many witnesses, concerning things of recent date and of importance to men; but as to the motives that worked behind the plainest actions, and as to all the contributing circumstances and how they weighed in the minds of the actors, we can usually but guess and speculate. How then must it be with the alleged facts of history? it may be asked; how can we ever hope to know, much less to value rightly, the vast multiplicity of causes and motives and conditions behind the clearest established action of long ago? The thought of men seems to live in a sort of vaporous medium, capable of distorting and concealing one mind from another event at the moment of action. To attempt to penetrate this ever-thickening and circling vapor and picture truthfully and psychologically any episode of the past would seem a hopeless undertaking. "All history is mythic," says Froude. "Our knowledge of one another is mythic. Our knowledge of everything is mythic, for in every act of perception we contribute something of our own."

It will, I suppose, be granted that if history is to be taught to the rising generation, the teacher should know history. But what if history, or rather, the truth of it, can never be known? We have no talisman or touchstone to tell the true from the false, except the touchstone of reason; and in the nature of things our reason, working upon such material as history affords, is ver yfallible. Must it be admitted then that the student of history is hopelessly enmeshed in error, and that the study is really futile? Such a conclusion does not square with the experience of any student. We all know there is an ascertained body of historical truth, a solid residuum of no small bulk. Notwithstanding all doubts and deductions, who can

seriously question it? Not only is it true, as Auguste Comte says, that "the most important facts of history are the best known and the least dependent on minute rectification for their true appreciation;" but there is, indeed, a simply enormous quantity of historical fact which no one thinks of rejecting. Subtract all mythical or even controverted matter, grant that vast, yes, incalculable quantities of incident have been lost to the memory of man, and still what remains is too stupendous for any mind to possess; so that even in dealing with what is amply authentic, the historian, even of the McMaster type, has to pick and choose, ignoring more facts than he handles, and seeking to arrange what little he takes to be significant, so as to produce his proportioned picture of the past. Thus the art of the historian, like other arts, is largely selection. This is what Macaulay means when he says, "Facts are the mere dross of history;" or again, "Perfectly and absolutely true history cannot be; for, to be perfectly and absolutely true, it ought to record *all* the slightest particulars of the slightest transactions—all the things done and all the words uttered during the time of which it treats. The omission of any circumstance, however insignificant, would be a defect. If history were written thus, the Bodleian library would not contain the occurrences of a week."

The day for universality in scholarship has long gone by. No one to-day is ridiculous enough to attempt, as Matthew Paris, Robert Mannyng, Higden, and in fact, most of the mediæval chroniclers did, to write the history of the world from the creation down to their own day.* Not only can no modern man take all the arts from his handmaidens, as Da Vinci did, or all knowledge for his province, as Lord Bacon would have done; but a lifetime of studious research hardly enables a man to claim the complete mastery of one sentence, or one literature, or one department of history. For, if any subject has taken on universal aspects in these modern days, it is history. Every branch of knowledge has its historical side. Thus, there is a vast field for study in the history of electricity or the history of calculus, or the history of education, or that of labor, or the history of any language. I know a man, for instance, who veritably lives

*A typical instance is Andrew of Wyntoun's "*Orygynale Cronykil of Scotland*" (about 1420), which he styled "*Orygynale*" because it began with the origin of the world.

on Old French. He has vowel changes for breakfast, consonantal shifts for dinner, and philological nuts to crack for supper, and he seems never to lack for food. Bulky volumes have been written on the history of minor principalities whose very names we scarcely know. Nay, there is hardly a county in the State of Ohio but its huge illustrated history has been published and sold for a lucrative consideration. What is true of Ohio is probably true of the other States; and no doubt the Bodleian library would not contain half the authentic histories that have been written in this country alone.

I at last get around to handle more directly my proper subject, What amount and kind of knowledge should be expected of a man who professes to be a student and teacher of history? We are convinced, on the one hand, that history as it comes down to us has its unascertained proportion of fiction and error; and, on the other hand, that the bulk of it which is sufficiently authenticated is too vast for any man to compass. Now in the study of history, perhaps the aphorism is particularly apt, "Know something of everything and everything of something." For as the human spirit pervading all history is one, the subject of history is a unity which cannot be comprehended or appreciated in any part unless that part is, in the mind of the student, related to the whole. The entire stirring and stupendous story of human progress—Egypt and the East, Greece, Rome, Germany, France, England, America—must take clear form in the mind as a panorama, or drama. We must return to this epoch or that, fill out such or such a portion of the development, obtain a more detailed and sharper picture here or there, until we can "place" each portion and comprehend the role each people and epoch played upon the great stage of man. All lands, all times, are, to be sure, not worthy of equal attention. The wonderful twelfth and thirteenth centuries in Europe are more significant than the half dozen that preceded;* and in those that followed we find little Holland or Lombardy playing greater parts than Spain or Germany. But all had some part, of which the liberal student of history cannot be ignorant. So in his mind the varied acts and scenes take position,

*It is a curious fact that while Europe was awakening, the vast empire of China, in those same centuries, was settling down from its previous "high and palmy state" into that lethargy, uniformity and induration that have since characterized it.

and form a great background for all his future study of any particular time or place.

As for the "everything of something," is it indeed a necessary part of the preparation of the history teacher that he should specialize deeply in some epoch? Does not such a procedure tend to destroy the perspective and disarrange the proportion of his knowledge? Possibly so; but the advantages are amply sufficient to overbalance this objection. He gains, first, a sense of the depth of history; he sees that his outline or surface knowledge of a given period may be greatly enriched, made colorful, vivid and complete. If this is accomplished for any one epoch and place, by detailed research, his conception of all other epochs is insensibly changed, deepened, and rationalized. In the second place, his understanding of other times and peoples is illuminated and clarified, his sympathies are touched and broadened, and his imagination is taught to make history a thing more real to him than before. And in the third place, this specializing teaches him the method of historical investigation; he learns to weigh evidence; he ascertains what the sources of historical knowledge prove to be; he is less apt to be over-credulous or over-skeptical; original and extended research, delving, if you please, trains his historical sense, and ripens his judgment. Such are the invaluable fruits of special research which, in my opinion, no teacher of history should miss or forego.

Were the choice necessary, however (which it is not), between such study and the gaining of a general knowledge of history, I should be inclined to side with those who would value more in the teacher of history a general knowledge of the scope and meaning of the past than some minute research by the focused mind of the specialist. Far be it from me to underrate the delver. Without him our knowledge of history would remain stationary, would cease to grow, would be unable to slough off accredited errors and weighted traditions, would be less real and adequate than it is and is to be. I have indeed sought to show the importance of research work, and I would have every teacher of history, as I have said, and with reasons, able to show that he has done at least one good piece of thorough-going special study. I repeat, he does not have to choose between such a study and the large view of history; but if he did, I should think it far less serious a lack, not to have done such research work

than not to have comprehended the scope and meaning of history as a whole. Specialization can be carried too far, when its effects become narrowing and almost deadening, for the purposes of the teacher of history. But the general and well-proportioned knowledge of history of all lands, all times, cannot be carried too far.

For, after all, what is the use of the study of history and what is the ideal function of the teacher of history? In another sense than Macaulay meant, in history the facts are but the dross; or should we not better say, the material. The meaning of it all, the tendency of the development, the lessons of the past, the encouragement and breadth of mind we need for the present and the future, these are what history should yield. Now the meaning of history is learned, if at all, by one of the widest of inductions, at which several sorts of attempts have been made. On the one hand, is Buckle right—is history a necessity, the determined working out of causes? Whitman puts it thus:

“I assert that all past days are what they must have been,
And that they could nohow be better than they were,
And that to-day is what it must be, and that America is,
And that to-day and America could nohow be better than they
are.”

And he might have added, “or different from what they are in any point.” The reason of man cannot deny this view, repugnant as it would be to a philosopher like Carlyle, to whom history was but “the essence of innumerable biographies”—needless to add, the biographies of free and self-willed great men, the heroes and leaders of the race. Looking, however, at the portraits in the City Hall at New York, Mr. Henry James thought he understood how, in the history of what he calls “the terrible town,” “nothing could have happened otherwise” than as it did. So much for one view of history. On the other hand, are the Hegelians right, in believing history to be a record of a certain kind of progress in self-consciousness—an increasing realization of man as a free being? To my thinking, the two views—determinism and increase of liberty—are reconcilable; but for this question I have not now the time, nor is this the fitting occasion. It is worth noting though, that Mr. Froude did not find “that liberty in the modern sense of the word raises the character either of individuals or

nations." To him "the only true progress is moral progress," and he appears to doubt whether such progress is taking place in our time. Certain it is, however, that for most of us history is, on the whole, a study making for optimism, or, to use George Eliot's word, for "meliorism." Schopenhauer and Hartman may demur to this; very well. Long ago the preacher cried, "All is vanity" and "there is nothing new under the sun." But as for the latter statement, we know better; and as for *vanitas vanitatem*, the Anglo-Saxon temper is skeptical. Rather it declares with a more modern prophet:

"All parts a way for the progress of souls, all religion, all solid things, arts, governments—all that was or is apparent upon this globe falls into niches and corners before the procession of souls along the grand roads of the universe. * * *

They go! they go! I know that they go, but I know not where they go,

But I know that they go toward the best—toward something great."

I think, however, we are often inclined, on hearing such words as these, to conceive of the progress of mankind as a homogeneous, steady, and, as it were, a marching movement. This is an error, for it ignores the status of the vast majority of men in all ages. There is a striking passage in Lotze's "Microcosmus," which puts it this way: "There has never been a period of history in which the culture peculiar to it has leavened the whole of humanity, or even the whole of that one nation which was specially distinguished by it. All degrees and shades of moral barbarism, of mental obtuseness, and of physical wretchedness have ever been found in juxtaposition with cultured refinement of life * * * and free participation in the benefits of social order. Humanity, at the different moments of its historical progress, is never like a clear and even current, of which all the molecules move with equal swiftness; it is rather like a mass of which the greater part moving on thick and slow is very soon checked by any little hindrance in its course and settles into inactivity; there is never more than a slender stream which, glancing in the sunlight, struggles on through the midst of the sluggish mass with unquenchable life and energy."

Well in accord with this passage from the German writer is the reflection that, if we view history as a growth in liberty, the course of this growth has always meant taking away more and more power from the few and giving it to the many. Every step in advance has illustrated this principle. Or, to continue the metaphor of the stream, we may say that history in the long run shows a gradual, even if intermittent widening of that slender but energetic current which represents the progressive and enlightened part of humanity. Even in our own civilization this stream of human progress may yet be checked and narrowed, as indeed to-day that vital thing, the wholesome increase of individuality among our people, seems to some to be threatened by a too mechanical system of education and industrial life; but we should not lose confidence that beyond all narrows the stream of humanity shall flow into the broad estuary of a widespread freedom and social justice. Optimism is dangerous. It is a siren song. But there are not wanting evidences that American optimism may prove to be of the active and energetic type. Therefore, however formidable seem the problems and however threatening the social dangers of to-day, we are still able to trust that wisdom and liberty shall yet triumph over the forces of privilege and inequality, as the thoughts of men shall widen with the process of the suns. All this, or at any rate some equally definite philosophy of events, the teacher of history should have worked out; for his greatest function is the broadening of his pupils' mental view, which implies a training of their power of interpreting the past, and the building up in them of a sound judgment of the present, a sound wisdom for the future.

I have but little space left for the consideration of a really important part of my subject—a part so extremely important as to be fully coordinate with all that has gone before. What we have considered, so far, is the preparation of the teacher with regard to the subject matter of history. What remains is his preparation with regard to the art of teaching. Unfortunately the one does not imply the other. A man may be a great historical scholar and yet know no better than a sophomore how the subject should be taught to young pupils. Only too many of the learned professors of all sorts of subjects in our colleges are sim-

ply no teachers at all. And the day has departed when we could say or think that this fact is of small consequence. I am, of course, aware that there are many high school teachers who despise, or affect to despise, what is dubbed "pedagogy." They even pride themselves upon their ignorance of it. But what does this amount to but a denial of all claim of teaching to the rank of a profession? It is to say in effect that anybody with a knowledge of subject matter is qualified to practice the delicate and responsible art of nurturing and training human minds. Teaching is to be done by a sort of knack or instinct. Bridge building and electrical installation and the painting of pictures and all the rest of the important work of the world is not done by instinct; it is done after long apprenticeship and training; but anybody can teach, though in utter ignorance of the nature and the laws of growth of the minds he works upon. My observation has tended to corroborate the view of President C. K. Adams, that a vast majority of American teachers "have received no special training whatever in the art of giving instruction." He goes on to say: "They are like physicians who begin the practice of medicine when they begin the study of it. The analogy is not so complete as it would be if physicians were appointed over certain districts and patients within those districts were obliged either to take medicine from them or to take none at all. In Germany, where systems and methods of instruction have been most carefully studied, there is no more thought of employing a public teacher who has given no study to methods of instruction as an art than there is of employing a musician who has confined his musical education to the mere hearing of music."

Happily, this state of affairs in our country is on the way to becoming a thing of the past, though high school teachers have been about the last to be affected by the professional awakening. An ever-increasing number of teachers of history, in continuing their studies while they are engaged in teaching (which assuredly every one ought to do, for the "preparation" of the teacher of history never ends), are including in their studies courses in branches of the science of education. This is a hopeful sign.

When I was a boy in high school I hated the subject of Greek and Roman history with a great hatred. The text-books I had to

read, and read again, were two closely printed volumes with no illustrations, and bound in black cloth. The contents were the dullest and deadest of facts. I regret to say that the author of these nightmare volumes was named Smith. He knew his facts, but not how to present them to the young.

In those days, at least when I was a schoolboy, history was simply a memory subject, and there was none of the enlivening oral instruction which forms so prominent a feature of the German method of teaching history. The boy was to read at his chapter as long as he could keep awake, and then read it again until he "learned" his history lesson. "Repetition is the mother of learning" was the only maxim of the history pedagogy of those near and unforgotten days. But, though I was as alert and studious as any boy in school, I learned not more than a thimbleful of Greek and Roman history in all those months of toilsome reading. There was something the matter with the Jesuitic maxim. Repetition unaided did not suffice. To-day, according as we are mild or strenuous by temperament, we pity or we curse the history teacher who does not know something of the psychology of memory; who does not know that interest is prerequisite to a permanent impression, and that the co-operation of the laws of association is necessary; and who does not know and employ effective ways of arousing and maintaining interest, and of associating things old and new, to the upbuilding of the store of memory.

So it appears that the former mode of dealing with history (I do not say of teaching it) was inadequate and ineffectual, not only because it relied merely upon the memory, but because, even so, it did not understand how to appeal to the memory. It was an outworn and unpsychological method of teaching.

But we have gone far enough nowadays to understand that history is not most valuable as a memory subject anyway, no matter how skillfully the nature and appetite of the memory be catered to. We have learned to recognize the importance of the imagination in education, and the function of history as a medium for the culture of the imagination. It is through the imagination that the past really lives for us and clothes itself with meaning. It is through the imagination that we broaden our sympathies, so as to make history human and emotional. So it behooves the teacher of history to know

of the psychology of the imagination, that he may appeal to this valuable faculty and train it by means of the wealth of material he has at command.

Nor, finally, dare we be negligent of another important function of the study of history—a function perhaps even greater than the development of the imagination. I mean the training and exercise of the reason. It is not enough to admit that history affords ample opportunity for such training. We must insist that history be so taught as to explain and naturalize the past, not in the mind of the teacher, but in the mind of the pupil. This, not only for the sake of the mental training involved, but especially for the sake of the political and social life of to-day and to-morrow. History must be made practical; not a mere book study, not a merely emotional or sympathetic reaction of the mind, but such a training in the ways of mankind as will work out into positive usefulness in the world. It is only in this way that a knowledge of the great trend or meaning of history, the “progress of souls,” of which I have already spoken, may become a matter of real consequence. For, whether we are determinists or believers in free will, we all agree that future progress will and must come about through the efforts, the actions, of men. In either view men are the agents of human betterment. The education of men is thus the direct means to progress. Patrick Henry knew no way to judge of the future but by the past. If this opinion is correct—and, with some limitation, it doubtless is correct—how great is the especial responsibility of the teacher of history! The lessons of history are not always clear, not always relevant to the problems of to-day; but are they not as relevant as anything taught in our schools? And is it not particularly incumbent then upon the teacher of history, that he equip himself as thoroughly and as continuingly as may be, in the almost limitless subject matter of this field of study, and in the indispensable art of handling this subject matter in the school, so as to secure as fully as possible the fruits of knowledge, human sympathy, and practical wisdom?

TREASURER'S REPORT.

MARCH 11, 1905—MARCH 10, 1906.

EXPENDITURES AND DEFICIT.

Deficit for 1904-1905.....	\$ 96.24
Paid for Clerical help.....	14.95
Exchanges.....	23.00
Incidental expenses.....	4.85
Postage.....	37.30
Printing... ..	186.00
	\$362.34

RECEIPTS.

From Membership dues.....	\$260.10	
From Exchanges.....	15.37	275.47
Present Deficit,		\$ 86.87

Due from members in arrears.....	\$107.00
Deduct deficit.....	86.87
	\$ 20.13

JAMES SULLIVAN,
Treasurer.

COMMITTEE REPORTS.

In behalf of Dr. Sachs, Chairman of the Committee on History in the Elementary Schools, Dr. Sullivan reported that the work of the committee had been combined with that of a similar committee of the American Historical Association of which Dr. Sachs is a member. In a report of that committee at Baltimore during the Christmas holidays, it was gratifying to note that the earlier work of our own committee had been given due recognition. In behalf of the Committee on History in the Secondary Schools, Dr. Sullivan reported that in the absence of Prof. Castle the work still stood at the point where it was left at the last report.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS.

WHEREAS it is well known to all members of the Association that Prof. Edward H. Castle has been obliged by serious illness to resign from the position of Secretary-Treasurer of the Association, be it therefore resolved :—

That the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland recognizes that the resignation of Professor Edward H. Castle as Secretary-Treasurer deprives the Association of one of its most faithful, efficient, and inspiring officers.

That the Association extends to Professor Castle its sincere sympathy in his illness and its earnest hope for his speedy return to active participation in the work of the Association.

That these resolutions be recorded in the minutes of the Association, and that a copy of them be sent to Professor Castle.

DANIEL C. KNOWLTON,
ELEANOR L. LORD,
MARY L. JOBE,
Committee on Resolutions.

The undersigned, representing the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, on behalf of the Association desire to express their appreciation of the arrangements made for their reception and entertainment during the fourth annual meeting of the Association, and to place on record a formal expression of gratitude to the officers and staff of the State Normal School, to the Society of the Colonial Dames and to the Daughters of 1812 for these courtesies which have served to render their visit to Trenton both pleasant and profitable.

DANIEL C. KNOWLTON,
ELEANOR L. LORD,
MARY L. JOBE.

LIST OF MEMBERS.

Abbe, Mrs. Robert,	City History Club,	New York City.
Abelson, Paul,	De Witt Clinton High School,	New York City.
Ames, Herman V.,	University of Pennsylvania,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Anderson, Bingley,	The Misses Masters School,	Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.
Andrews, C. M.,	Bryn Mawr College,	Bryn Mawr, Pa.
Andrews, Elizabeth A.,	Miss Baldwin's School,	Bryn Mawr, Pa.
Arnold, Isabel F.	Plainfield Seminary,	Plainfield, N. J.
Arnold, Joseph M.,	Superintendent Schools,	Princeton, N. J.
Arthur, L. Louise,	Bryant High School,	Long Island City.
Balch, Elizabeth,	St. Agnes School,	Albany, N. Y.
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Baldwin, Blanche,	Miss Baldwin's School,	Bryn Mawr, Pa.
Baldwin, Florence,	Public School No. 31,	Borough of Bronx.
Banks, C. W. P.,	Philadelphia School of Pedagogy,	Philadelphia, Pa.
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Bates, A. B.,	Columbia University,	New York City.
Beard, C. A.,	Newark High School,	Newark, N. J.
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Blair, Elizabeth R.,	Public School No. 102,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
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Brown, Marshall S.,	Miss Baldwin's School,	Bryn Mawr, Pa.
Brownell, Jane L.,	Hackley School,	Tarrytown, N. Y.
Brush, W. F.,	High School of Commerce,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Bryan, A. C.,	Cornell University,	Ithaca, N. Y.
Burr, George L.,	Morristown School,	Morristown, N. J.
Butler, Arthur P.,		

Butler, Eliza R.,	Horace Mann School,	New York City.
Calhoun, Mary E.,	Horace Mann School,	New York City.
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Campbell, Grace B.,	Private School,	New York City.
Campbell, James O.,	Westminster College,	New Wilmington, Pa.
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	nary,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Carpenter, Leonora E.,	Eastern High School,	Baltimore, Md.
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Carse, Elizabeth,	Charlton School,	New York City,
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Carter, Sally R.,	St. Timothy's School,	Catonsville, Md.
Cartwright, Otho G.,	Horace Mann School,	New York City.
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Chandler, J. A. C.,	Publisher,	New York City.
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Cooley, Henry S.,	High School,	Paterson, N. J.
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Crosswell, James G.,	Brearley School,	New York City.
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Dean, Sarah M.,	Brearley School,	New York City.
Dodge, Dora B.,	Public School No. 55,	Brooklyn.
Dubbs, Joseph H.,	Franklin and Marshall	
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Dwyer, Elsie M.,	High School,	Montclair, N. J.
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Fairley, William,	High School of Commerce,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Fanning, Grace M. W.,	Manual Training High	
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Farrand, Anna A.,	High School,	Goshen, N. Y.
Farrand, Max,	Stanford University,	Palo Alto, Cal.
Farrand, Wilson,	Newark Academy,	Newark, N. J.
Fay, Mary L.,	The Misses Kirk's School,	Rosemont, Pa.
Fell, A. M.,	Boudinot & Murray Sts.,	Trenton, N. J.
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Glaspell, John G.,	Superintendent Schools,	Bridgeton, N. J.
Goertner, Mrs. R.,	Girls' Technical High School,	New York City.
Goodwin, W. Grant,	Curtis High School,	New York City.
Green, Olive,	Washington St.,	Morrisville, Pa.
Grotevent, Katherine E.,		Palmyra, N. J.
Haeseler, Louise H.,	High School for Girls,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Haight, S. Carleton,	City College,	New York City.
Hall, E. R.,	Balliol School,	Utica, N. Y.
Hall, Mary A.,	Mannual Training High School,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Hallock, Elizabeth,	Chappaqua Mt. Institute,	Chappaqua, N. Y.
Harjes, Helen G.,		Narbeth, Pa.
Hayes, Ralph L.,	Publisher,	Philadelphia, Pa.
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Herrick, Cheesman A.,	Central High School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Hewett, Charles,	Normal Boarding Hall,	Trenton, N. J.
Hill, Emilie B.,	Commercial High School for Girls,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Henman, Caroline J.,	53 Wall St.,	Trenton, N. J.
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Hogan, Katherine E.,	Public School No. 58.	New York City.
Holbrook, Dwight,	Military Academy,	Ossining, N. Y.
Horner, Blanche,	Public School No. 89,	New York City.
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Howland, Arthur C.,	University of Pennsylvania,	Philadelphia, Pa.
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	School for Girls,	Scarsdale, N. Y.
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Lord, Eleanor L.,	Woman's College,	Baltimore, Md.
Lowenstein, S. S.,	Public School No. 160,	New York City.
Luqueer, Frederick L.,	Public School No. 136,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
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Prettyman, Virgil,	Horace Mann School,	New York City.
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Members are requested to notify the Secretary of changes or corrections in addresses or omissions.